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# **A PROFILE OF INTERNATIONAL PARTICIPANTS OF THE 2004 CAPE ARGUS PICK 'N PAY CYCLE TOUR**

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## Abstract

Sport tourism is a niche market within the broad field of tourism in South Africa. The tourism industry of this country is relatively young in terms of development when compared to European and American countries as a result of the retardation caused by apartheid. While the leisure tourist market in South Africa continues to be researched extensively, the niche Special Interest Tourism (SIT) markets, particularly that of sport tourism, are being overlooked to a great extent and continue the struggle to reach the levels of similar, developed markets. Many other aspects of the sport tourism industry of South Africa require research, to provide the knowledge that will help the country position itself adequately and capitalise on this market. This includes investigation into SA as a host destination of events, profiling the international sport tourists who visit SA as well as the domestic sport tourists that travel to sporting events within the country.

The Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour (CAPPCT) is a world-renowned event and satisfies the criteria of the definition of a hallmark event i.e. "Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long term. Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status or timely significance to create interest and attract attention". Consequently, this event was selected as the ideal event on which to investigate the above-mentioned aspects.

Sport tourists' choices are influenced by many intrinsic and extrinsic factors. These intrinsic factors include the inherent needs and motivations that drive the individual. The widely used Needs hierarchy depicts the order in which an individual's needs are satisfied. One begins with the lower-order needs such as nutrition, shelter, security, which are followed by higher-order needs such as social acceptance, status and self-actualisation. The notion is that as lower order needs are satisfied, higher order needs that are more associated with the ego than the body, take precedence and become more important. In addition one's identity and how one seeks to define it are of great importance. Many spectators and players define themselves by the sports that they play and the teams that they support (and identify with), to a great extent. An external factor such as sub-cultural membership provides the individual with a different set of benefits and ultimately fulfils higher level needs far more effectively.

The purpose of the study was to examine the motivations of international participants in the CAPPCT for travelling long-haul to Cape Town to participate in this event; secondary objectives included examining the effects of the event as well as the participants' perceptions of Cape Town as a host destination. Independent variables examined include "first-time participants", "reasons for participation", "team participation", and "importance of cycling". Dependent variables include "participation without friends/team", "the likelihood of travel for participation". The research hypotheses aimed to identify a statistical relationship between these and other independent and dependent variables.

On 21 May 2004, e-mails were sent to the database of international participants (1 167) for the 2004 event, containing a link to the online research survey where participants could submit their answers online. As the entire sample was open to respond, the Simple Random Sampling technique was utilised, creating no bias on any party or group within the sample. Three hundred and fifty responses were received of which 37 were discarded due to being incomplete or having responded previously. The sample frame consisted of the database of international participants into the 2004 event. Respondents were predominantly male (84,4%) between the ages of 31 and 50 (73,2%). A key finding was that most respondents participated in individual sporting events with very few participating in team sports. Generally, perceptions of Cape Town as a host destination were very favourable measured according to the physical environment as well as the reception received from locals. Economically, most expenditure was on food and accommodation, satisfying the most basic requirements. The least expenditure was on public transport.

In conclusion, it was felt that a great deal more research is required in order to obtain a thorough understanding of this niche target market and that this particular study, while unearthing numerous interesting findings, has only scratched the surface.

## Acknowledgements

This dissertation has been a test of dedication, determination and perseverance, none of which can be achieved without support. I am fortunate enough to have obtained the support of several parties who aided me in its completion.

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## Glossary

E-mail – an electronic message that is sent from one computer terminal, via telephone lines, to the recipient's computer terminal. The message is stored on the recipient's terminal until that person logs in to check his/her e-mail.

Website Server – A web server serves pages to clients across the Internet or Intranet. It hosts pages, scripts, files, programs and multimedia files and serves them using Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), a protocol which determines how files will be transferred.

Internet – A network consisting of an international network of computer networks that use network protocols to facilitate the transmission and exchange of data and information.

URL – the address of a web page on the Internet.

Download – To download a file means to transfer a file from someone else's computer across a network and save it on one's own computer.

HTML – Hypertext Markup Language is the most common programming language in the world and can be viewed by the majority of the world's computer.

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# Introduction

## 1. Background to the study

Since 1994 when South Africa was reintroduced to the world as an exciting new tourism destination, its tourist industry in the country has gone from strength to strength. Visitors from all over the world have been flocking to the country to experience its newfound freedom, independence and to revel in its beauty.

The success of the industry in South Africa can be felt far and wide within the country – most notable is the economic impact. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) predict annual per annum growth in the industry of 5.5% between 2003 and 2013<sup>1</sup>. According to the WTTC the travel and tourism industry accounted for 6.6% of total employment in South Africa and this figure is expected to increase over the next 10 years. A decade into the new democracy numerous Special Interest Tourism (SIT) markets have developed, which are similarly significant in the contributions (both monetary and otherwise) that they make to the communities in which they exist. These include cultural tourism, adventure tourism, eco-tourism, business tourism and sport tourism. While the above-mentioned figures pertain to the leisure tourism industry in general, and while the growth forecast is substantial, mismanagement of the industry and misunderstanding of the strategic goals can result in that success not being achieved.

In 1996, just two years into the new democracy the South African government established South African Sports Tourism (SAST) in an attempt to capitalise on this developing industry. This organisation soon became redundant as its function was merged into the governmental portfolios of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and the reborn Sports Ministry.

Essentially, the sports tourist is at the centre and the crux of the entire Sports Tourism industry. It can be argued that sport is the driving factor, but it is apparent that different sports hold different attractions and the degree of an individual's involvement in a sport will be a determining factor in their choice of whether or not to participate in

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<sup>1</sup> [www.wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)

an event – even more so when the event entails spending money and engaging in financial and physical risk in order to travel to a foreign destination to participate in it.

## **2. Sports Tourism**

Standeven and De Knop (1992) define Sports Tourism as "the whole range of competitive and non-competitive active pursuits that involve skill, strategy, and/or chance in which human beings engage, at their own level, simply for enjoyment and training or to raise their performance to levels of publicly acclaimed excellence". Upon closer inspection this niche market is somewhat more complex than general leisure tourism. This is because sports tourism consists of two categories (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 8) – namely Sports Tourism and Tourism Sports.

Spectators can also be singled out as a third, albeit unofficial category. Those who engage in Sports Tourism, travel to certain destinations specifically to participate in competitive or recreational sporting events. Those who engage in Tourism Sports however travel to destinations for holiday purposes and play sport as a pastime or hobby; in other words, sport is incidental to their initial intention for the trip. Furthermore, spectators experience different pleasures and motivations through their sporting interests as it is experienced through third parties and not active participation. Essentially, at the core of any consumer are his/her needs – what motivates their actions or causes their actions to differ from someone else's.

For this reason, these three categories of Sports Tourism, Tourism Sports and 'Spectatorism', are three distinct markets with distinctly different needs and must be treated as such. This particular study focuses on the active sports tourist as this market is the most common and possibly the most economically lucrative of all those mentioned. It would seem that this market differs slightly from leisure tourists yet it is not known how or why.

## **3. The Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour**

The Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour (CAPPCT) which has increasingly come to be known as "The Argus" is a popular sporting event in Cape Town, South Africa and the world. The event which was initially called the Big Ride-In, began in 1977 and was

planned in order to raise awareness for the need for cycle paths in the Western Cape. It was a huge success and attracted hundreds of cyclists. The following year, the well-known Cape Town newspaper, The Argus came on board as the primary sponsor and the Argus Cycle Tour was born.

The Cycle Tour went from strength-to-strength with each year that passed and by 1991, it had grown to 15 000 participants; the event increased in proportions when the first Exhibition was held. By 2004, the event had grown to become the largest timed cycling event in the world with over 35 000 participants including (1 697 international participants).<sup>2</sup> The latter group comprised cyclists spanning five continents and 48 countries.

#### **4. Reason/Statement of problem**

South Africa is a relatively new player in the international tourism and sporting arenas having only been an active member for ten years and having been hindered by the Apartheid years which prevented interaction with the rest of the world. The subsequent influx of tourists has overwhelmed the country and left it in a position where it is receiving many different types of tourists in the leisure market at large as well as in the Special Interest Tourism market. Consequently these groups with their different motivations and character profiles need further investigation into their consumer buying behaviour. South Africa is beginning to recognise the importance of the sports tourism market and in recent years it has hosted events that attract mass international media attention such as the Rugby World Cup in 1995 and the Cricket World Cup in 2003. Furthermore, in 2010 the country will once again play host to one of the world's greatest sporting events namely the FIFA Soccer World Cup. While these events attract large numbers of spectators, they are essentially once-off occurrences for host destinations. While other tournaments associated with these sports, such as the Vodacom Super 12 and the Tri-Nations Rugby Tournaments, occur on an annual basis, the participants or players, rather than the spectators, are the main sports tourists associated with these events and as tourists, their itineraries and activities are strictly regimented.

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<sup>2</sup> [www.cycletour.co.za](http://www.cycletour.co.za)

However, there is also a large number of major sporting events in South Africa that occur on an annual basis such as the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, the Comrades Marathon and the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon, all of which have huge potential for development through adequate knowledge and understanding of this market. There has been a dearth of research in the Special Interest Tourism market of sports tourism, with most of the research having been conducted overseas. The aim of this study is to create a profile of sports tourists to the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour with the hope of expanding and extrapolating that profile to other similar events in South Africa, as well as to compare it to similar studies conducted elsewhere. In so doing, South African sporting event organisers will be better equipped to cater to the needs of participants. Furthermore, sponsors and advertisers will have greater insight into the perceptions of this market.

## 5. Research Hypotheses

Motivations:

**H<sub>0</sub>:** The social interaction experienced in the 2004 Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay cycle tour is the primary motive for participation.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** Motives of first-time participants differ from that of previous participants.

**H<sub>b</sub>:** Participants are fulfilling their lower level needs through participation in the CAPPCT.

Relationship with existing leisure tourist typologies:

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Participants of the CAPPCT cannot be grouped into existing typologies.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** Participants do not engage in any pre- and post-event activities.

Sporting interests:

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Participants in the CAPPCT do not take part in sports other than cycling.

Economic Factors:

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Participants do not spend equal amounts of money on food, public transport, accommodation, cycling equipment, goods & services at the Lifestyle Expo etc.

Socio-cultural factors:

**H<sub>0</sub>:** The host destination (Cape Town) is the primary attraction for participants, rather than the actual event.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** The perceptions, of the participants of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, of Cape Town as the destination of the event are unfavourable.

## 6. Study Limitations

This research study has numerous limitations which must be noted at the outset.

- The research project includes international participants only and not domestic tourists i.e. from within South African borders. The cyclists can be divided into three groups: (i) those from within the Western Cape, (ii) those from other parts of South Africa (domestic tourists); (iii) those from outside of South Africa, the domestic tourist category makes up the largest proportion of cyclists (58%). When utilizing this grouping system, the largest group is (by definition of the study) excluded from the research.
- The sample also includes ex-patriot South Africans who have emigrated and are now living in other countries, albeit a small percentage of the total group.
- English was selected as the primary language of communication after assurance from the event organisers that it is the participants' language of choice when communicating with the participants. However, certain participants who are not English-speaking may have chosen not to complete the survey due to an inability to understand the language.

## 7. Plan of development

The dissertation will proceed in the following manner. In the following chapter a detailed literature review discusses the history of tourism and sports, as well as the effects of both, the motivations of participants and the demand and supply of events. This will be followed by an explanation of the methodology of the research, followed by the research findings and the proposed typology model. The dissertation concludes with the conclusions reached and recommendations made by the researcher as a result of the research study.



## Literature Review

### 1. What is tourism?

Despite the fact that tourism has existed in some form or other for a long period, it still lacks a precise definition. Different organisations and experts have defined tourism in a subjective manner to the benefit of their specific research and objectives.

It should be said however, that the mere nature of the industry presents challenges in defining the term. For example, the geographical area concerned (local, domestic or international), the purpose of travel (leisure, business, hobbies etc) and the ever-present problem of factoring the economic variable into the equation, must all be considered and categorized in order to do so. As the industry expands to encompass auxiliary industries and sectors, the task of defining tourism becomes that much harder.

The most widely used definition for the term is the one devised by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) which stated that tourism is "the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes" (George, 2001 : 17). Defining tourism as a concept and as an industry presents several meanings but these are generally overcome as time goes on and as more research is conducted.

### 2. The history of tourism

The beginning of tourism can be traced as far back as the sixteenth century when movements in the industry were first noted. If one cares to consider it though, it is said that from the time of the Roman Empire to the sixteenth century, the world in fact regressed in terms of the degree of development of communication between people spread across the world (Burkart & Medlik, 1975: 3).

The beginning stages of tourism have been divided into four distinct stages viz. prehistory tourism, transport, the interwar period and tourism take-off (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 11-12). As stated above, prehistory tourism dates back to the sixteenth century when travelling first became a pastime to be enjoyed. Prior to this, travelling to foreign places was engaged in only for reasons of war and religious pilgrimage (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 14). The seventeenth century proved to be significant

because it also saw the onset of the Reformation. This initiated a new line of thinking and encouraged more liberal mindsets particularly in the more educated circles of the time.

As was characteristic of the time, the class system was the ruling factor which governed the unwritten societal norms. The upper classes generally were (and are) the most privileged members of society i.e. the wealthiest and most well-educated breed of people. This new school of thought was therefore displayed in the consequent practices of young upper-class gentlemen. It became imperative to their education that they travel to foreign countries, particularly if they were to become successful in their respective careers (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 15 and Page, Brunt & Busby, 2001: 33). 'The Grand Tour', as it was known, involved touring Europe and learning different things in different countries, but this was stopped by Napoleonic Wars and the French Revolution (Mill & Morrison, 1998: 10).

This pattern was generally followed in subsequent years. In other words, the wealthiest members of society were to become what Cohen would later (1972) term 'explorers' and 'drifters'. In other words, they were the ones who discovered various destinations and through their patronage and the consequent economic benefit which flowed from it; these destinations were eventually developed into mass tourism destinations (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 15). The tourists that frequented these destinations 'post-development' were those who fell into the lower-class categories who were seeking to fulfil aspirational needs by frequenting places popular among those in the upper-classes (Page, Brunt & Busby, 2001: 34).

At approximately the same time, sport clubs opened their doors to the public (Rader, 1983: 50) so that their focus moved from being strictly sport to encompassing a great deal of the clubs' original members who remained sports enthusiasts. Ironically, this move was to spark off the social tourism trend among the European working class where some of these clubs developed and sold holiday packages to their working class members (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 15).

The consequent changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution meant that more people in the mid- and upper-classes had free time to partake in leisure activities (Page, Brunt & Busby, 2001 : 34). These changes occurred in the fields of technology,

industry and labour laws (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 16). At the same time huge advances were made in the fields of transport where rail became the most important mode of inland transport and cruise-ships the most-used mode of transatlantic transport (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 18).

The First World War adversely affected the development of tourism and slowed it down considerably with tremendous environmental and lifestyle changes brought about after the war including changed attitudes, "greater expectations, a rise in living standards" and an overall desire for a more harmonious lifestyle and tolerance of different cultures (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 21). At the beginning of World War Two it was also reported that twenty countries had begun implementing labour laws and workers rights started gaining recognition (Burkart & Medlik, 1975: 23). The combination of all these factors stimulated and facilitated mass tourism growth. This mass travel occurred in the wealthier parts of Europe and the USA first i.e. the countries that benefited most from the war, because these were the countries with the technology to facilitate this type of travel (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 23 and Page, Brunt & Busby, 2001: 38).

From this point onwards tourism growth progressed gradually until the 1980s when the demand for "sun, sea, and sand" (the three s') holidays reached saturation point amongst European holidaymakers (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997: 26). Again, the Western countries were the most advanced in terms of tourism development and this remains the case today. Most of the segments that have emerged, emerged in these countries first as did special interest tourism (SIT) markets. The citizens of less developed countries that latch onto this trend, lag significantly behind their wealthier counterparts in terms of their development as tourists, and once again aspire to their lifestyle, thus fulfilling aspirational needs.

### **3. What is Sport?**

It can be said that Sport is a form of leisure activity; however sport is not as easily defined as leisure is, due to the vast array of games that are often classified as sport. Therefore Ball and Loy (1975: 1-12) proposed a continuum with 'play' and 'sport' as its end points and the definition of sport becoming clearer as one moves from one extreme (play) to the other (sport).

When moving from play towards sport the following occurs:

- The activity becomes less individualised and less spontaneous;
- Rules, positions and responsibilities within the activity become more dominant;
- The activity is less separated from daily life;
- The outcome of the activity is less of an individual responsibility and more of a group responsibility;
- Goals become more important and complex; and
- The activity becomes more time-consuming as it requires more preparation and is more serious.

Various authors have also defined sport as, among other things, a social institution. Ball and Loy go on to say that sport contains intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards and as the extrinsic rewards become more dominant, sport becomes less of a leisure activity and more of a profession (1975: 12). Similarly, two definitions of sport tourism have been identified viz. the hard and soft definitions. The *hard* definition states that an individual's primary motive for travel is to engage in a *competitive* sport whereas the soft definition identifies those who travel to participate in *recreational* sport (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 8). The soft definition is thus more concerned with 'play' whereas the hard definition refers to 'sport' in the true sense of the word.

### 3.1 The relationship between sport and leisure

There are numerous technicalities that plague the definition of leisure. These would differ according to who one speaks to and when one speaks to them. Rojek (1985) and Moorhouse (1989) identified several of these technicalities (Dunning, 1996). Firstly, leisure is experienced and enjoyed by adults and differs from children's play; it is enjoyed by skilled and knowledgeable individuals. Furthermore, the concept of leisure has been structured by rules designed to "legitimize" pleasure and displeasure. The categories of 'work' and 'leisure' should be abandoned when considering the concept as a whole; and the analysis of leisure should display a keen interest in fun.

The above-mentioned technicalities vary between being common sense, simplistic, ambiguous and nonsense, and it seems somewhat irresponsible to try to satisfy all these conditions when defining certain acts as leisure. In addition, leisure activities

and non-leisure activities differ along two continuums; that of choice and routine and it has been agreed that while all leisure activities are spare time, not all spare time activities are leisure (Dunning, 1996). For example, house-cleaning is highly routinised and an activity that one is forced to engage in as opposed to one that most people would choose to engage in for leisure purposes, as illustrated in the figure below.

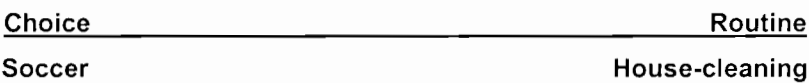


Figure 1: Choice/Routine continuum

Leisure activities also enable the doer to exercise a far greater degree of choice and therefore freedom and autonomy in their decision-making. In light of all these "facts" about the concept of leisure, sport then, is characterised as a highly routinised activity and, in the case of team sports is subject to the decisions of others as well as the individual's own and is therefore less likely to be regarded as a leisure activity than other activities. Dunning (1996) elaborates on this notion by stating that sport is seen as engaging "the body" as opposed to engaging "the mind" – leisure activities being those that engage "the mind".

Furthermore, he states that the elements of leisure are sociability, motility and imagination. These technicalities all seemingly serve to exclude sport from the category of leisure. One could then argue that any spare time activity that becomes mildly routinised, often due to it being engaged in more and more often, stops being a leisure activity at this point and ends up being somewhere between leisure and work. Dunning (1996) states that leisure serves the function of breaking the norm, the routine of everyday life, but increasingly leisure activities are becoming routinised thereby defeating the purpose of their very existence. Leisure activities also serve as a form of escapism through the unpredictability, excitement and tension that they present to the norms of everyday life. Sport then, is arguably the leisure activity most fitting to this description and while it does not necessarily satisfy all the conditions imposed by academia on the definition of leisure; it surely fulfils its purpose better than its "leisure" counterparts.

Sport should be "subsumed" by the general concept of leisure as a way in which people spend their time; in addition, sport is real and observable by multitudes and fulfils numerous societal functions (Ball and Loy, 1975: 10-11).

### **3.2 Defining sport tourism**

Sport and tourism are two semi-related topics (both occupying an individual's leisure time) that merge to form a tourism niche market. However, before reaching this point two independent concepts exist and each deserve to be defined as such.

The Oxford Dictionary (1983) defines sport as "a game or competitive activity usually involving physical exertion; these collectively; meeting for competition in athletics; amusement or fun." According to this definition, sport therefore exists at varying degrees of physical exertion and professionalism, for example, it could be purely recreational at one end of the continuum, or strictly professional as someone's occupation, at the other end of the continuum. Sport is commonly understood to be a form of physical activity that is governed by a set of rules, follows a pre-defined format and involves two or more parties competing to achieve a certain goal (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 3).

Taking these and other aspects into account, Standeven and De Knop define sport as "the whole range of competitive and non-competitive active pursuits that involve skill, strategy, and/or chance in which human beings engage, at their own level, simply for enjoyment and training or to raise their performance to levels of publicly acclaimed excellence" (1999: 12). Turco, Riley and Swart (2002: 3) acknowledge that when discussed in the context of tourism, sport should be defined broadly as "any activity, experience or production for which the primary focus is athletics or physical recreation." After consideration of this concept as well as that of tourism, one can define sport tourism as "all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised manner, was for non-commercial or commercial reasons, that necessitate travel away from home and work locality". The sport tourist, therefore, is the individual who participates in that activity.

However, it seems that this definition is merely the tip of the iceberg as Gammon and Robinson (1997) found. They devised a model that emphasized the role played by the sport activity in tourism. In other words, the extent to which sport was the reason for travel enabled them to discern between 'sport tourism' and 'tourism sports'. As mentioned earlier sport professionalism lays on a continuum and the hard definition of sport tourism lies at the far end of that continuum i.e. the highest degree of professionalism (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002 : 8). Similarly, the soft definition is at the opposite end of the continuum and refers to those who travel primarily for recreational participation in sport.

'Tourism sports' on the other hand, refers to those who will engage in sport strictly as a secondary activity and as an incidental activity. In each case, participation could be either active or passive, the latter referring to spectators and supporters who do not physically engage in the actual sport (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 9).

## **4. The history of the development of sport**

It is of great interest to note how the concept of leisure evolved over time and how sport as one component of leisure developed and grew as a result thereof, during the same period.

### **4.1 The origin of sport**

Sport, in its numerous forms, has existed for innumerable years with actual records thereof dating back to the medieval times. The sports of the time included stick and ball games and football although not in its modern form. These were the sports of the poor, the lower classes who engaged in these sports for the entertainment of the aristocracy or upper classes (Baker, 1982: 2). However, the notion of competition, the underlying motivator of modern sports, was around for a significantly longer time, dating as far back as prehistoric hunters/tribes. The tribe with the most impressive physical prowess led the way and was generally perceived as 'superior' by themselves, as well as their contemporaries (Baker, 1982: 4).

The Olympic Games, the oldest organized sport competition, finds its origin in ancient Greece, a millennium before the birth of Christ. At Olympia, a shrine was

established in honour of the Greek god of gods, Zeus<sup>3</sup>. Young Greeks engaged in this athletic competition where for the first few hundred years, religion dominated over competitiveness as the focus of the competition. Much later in 776 B.C., when the first winners were recorded this focus shifted somewhat and competition became more important as more events were added to the games (Baker, 1982: 16 and [www.aroundgreece.com](http://www.aroundgreece.com)). Like the modern Olympics, the ancient games were held every four years, but unlike the modern games, only Greeks entered and competed. These games also heralded early forms of sports tourism as participants and their trainers travelled to Olympia a month before the actual games began, to prepare themselves adequately. It has been written that during this period which preceded the games as well as the games itself, athletes endured unhygienic conditions and extremities of temperature all for the sake of participation in one of the greatest spectacles of their time (Baker, 1982: 17).

The games also identify early traces of sponsorship, one of the key money-spinners of the modern sports industry. While previously only the wealthy competed, poorer but talented Greeks found themselves able to compete and were 'sponsored' by being rewarded for outstanding performance with free lodging and food at the city's expense (Baker, 1982: 22). As Greece decreased in its majesty, and the Roman Empire rose to power (soon encompassing large parts of the world) the games adopted a different focus as the Roman upper-class favoured a hedonistic lifestyle. The games therefore focused on the pleasure of the spectators as it came under the power of the Romans (Baker, 1982: 28 and Zauhar, 2004). The Romans cared little for fair play, rules, discipline and professionalism – all elements that are distinctly rooted in Greek tradition (Baker, 1982: 31). They focused instead on events to entertain the masses and this inevitably led to events being staged specifically for this purpose (Baker, 1982: 32).

Most of these events were gladiatorial bouts pitting known criminals or low-class persons against each other. These games captivated the audience's emotions because they were so engrossed in the events that unfolded before them. They experienced tension, relief, exhaustion, joy and agony, all of which were enormously encapsulating. As the demand for these events increased, so too did

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<sup>3</sup> [www.aroundgreece.com](http://www.aroundgreece.com)



the scale and regularity with which they were held (Zauhar, 2004). These contests ended with the demise of the Roman Empire.

The much heralded Greek Olympics suffered a tremendous blow when the Roman Empire came to power. Olympia was eventually buried by nature with the games and traditions that went with it and so it would remain for centuries to come (Baker, 1982: 40).

Thus one era of sport ended and a new one began. In Medieval times, new sports developed often rooted in religion. Sport codes involving balls being passed to and fro was significant of a tussle between good and evil while stick and ball games symbolized hitting evil away (Baker, 1982: 42-44 and Zauhar, 2004). Sport thus started out as a pastime of monks and peasants but later found itself being adopted by the upper classes and often adapted to their lifestyles – consequently becoming famous in these forms (Baker, 1982: 49). Ironically, these upper classes later tried to suppress the popularity of these sports among the lower classes labelling it as “disruptive” and fearful that it would “disturb the tranquillity of the social order” (Baker, 1982: 54). However, this action only served to increase the popularity thereof among these groups.

#### **4.2 The emergence of ‘Mass Leisure’**

The Industrial Revolution arguably had the most prolific impact on modern society. It gave rise to a new lifestyle in a new habitat – the (urbanized) city. This, in turn, gave rise to new facilities viz., housing, sanitation, food supply, transport, policing and local governments (Baker, 1982: 99). As stated, the lifestyle changes that occurred were tenfold and gave rise to an entirely new social system. With working days lasting between twelve and fourteen hours in a six-day week, leisure time was scarce and increasingly valuable (Baker, 1982: 104). Sundays remained the only day of the week when work did not take place and rest was chosen over play by the working masses. However, as the number of public holidays over the year increased, the opportunities for leisure activity did too and the sport of football increased in popularity among the working class.

As in medieval times, the upper classes tried to expel the growing trend from the lower classes arguing that the activity as well as the ensuing spectatorship (Zauhar,

2004) was disruptive of the peace and encouraged hooliganism in an already uncivilized race. However, this attitude only served to increase the popularity of the sport among the working class. The irony is evident today as football has transformed ordinary working class gentlemen into international heroes and elevated them into the upper classes through the great wealth that they have collected. This attitude later changed and spectators or onlookers were subsequently regarded as a privileged group (Zauhar, 2004), even more so than participants. While sport was engaged in freely by rural inhabitants, their urban counterparts struggled to find the time as their lengthy work week did not allow for this pleasure (Baker, 1982: 107). The biggest barriers to mass leisure in urban centres proved to be the lack of space (parks in which to play sport) and time in which to do so (Baker, 1982: 114).

### 4.3 The emergence of modern sport

The desire to rekindle the long-dead Olympic Games arose in the nineteenth century when archaeologists uncovered the remains of Olympia (Baker, 1982: 192). However, it was the Frenchman, Baron Pierre de Coubertin who accepted the task of reinstituting these games.

His cause began in 1892 and though it was long and not without its fair share of hindrances, soon the International Olympic Committee (IOC) was in place and plans were underway for this dream to become a reality (Baker, 1982: 193-194). It took only four short years and in 1896 the first modern games were held in Athens, the homeland of the original games (Baker, 1982: 195).

While the athletes participating in this spectacle were the major sport tourists, the games also proved to be an attraction for other early tourists. It caused some to include Greece on their packaged tours and some (e.g. sailors) to engage in impromptu visits – all to be a part of history and the first Olympic Games. So the greatest games of our time was born and with each one that came, the events became more vast, the competition became more fierce and record numbers of participants entered and spectators attended<sup>4</sup>.

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<sup>4</sup> [www.aroundgreece.com](http://www.aroundgreece.com)  
[www.fhw.gr](http://www.fhw.gr)

While this development was most noticeable in Europe, across the Atlantic in the Americas new sport industries were developing. Today, they have grown to massive proportions and epitomize organized sport. They are the National Hockey League in Canada, soccer in South America and in the USA, a new type of (American) football, as well as baseball and boxing (Baker, 1982: 208).

Sport today has become one of the most lucrative industries of all with two all-important products, the player and the game. It has reached this state because their truly is a "piece of the money pie" for everyone from players to media to sponsors and sport equipment manufacturers. After the end of the Second World War, the Soccer World Cup, that other great sport spectacle increased in popularity (Baker, 1982: 305). With the invention of television, the World Cup was broadcast into the homes of multitudes. Consequently, this acted as a tool that motivated many to travel to the World Cup and experience the event firsthand. Media therefore acted as an agent for the niche market of sport tourism.

These new tourists who were also fans believed that they were able to cheer their team to victory through their attendance. Alternatively, these fans were also able to (and indeed some chose to) watch the same game in the comfort of their own homes (Baker, 1982: 307). The effect of the media was twofold. The advent and proliferation of the automobile though, separated fans (spectators) from true fans that were now able to follow their teams and truly celebrate in their victories and suffer in their defeats.

## 5. Events

An event by its very nature is something that draws people – some much more so than others. Events exist at different levels or scales each of which will be defined. Many sport spectacles are defined as events with some of the world's greatest sport tournaments also being its greatest events, for example the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games. Just as events occur on different scales, so too do sport tournaments, where community sport club tournaments would be the smaller scale events.

## 5.1 Defining hallmark events

The Oxford Dictionary (1983) defines an event as "something that happens". This definition is extremely broad and leaves much room for interpretation. Indeed, the scale on which the "thing" occurs ultimately is the most notable factor for distinguishing between various types of events.

Further distinguishing factors include the transience of these events (Smith & Jenner, 1998: 74) and their significantly less easily determined after-effects (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 182). The largest of these events is the mega event, sometimes also referred to as a hallmark event. The distinction between these two is somewhat unclear although the following discussion attempts to create more clarity in this regard. Hallmark events are defined as "major fairs, expositions, cultural and sporting events of international status which are held on either a regular or one-time basis" (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 182 and Hall, 1997: 1).

Mega events however are distinctive and can be identified by the volume of visitors that it attracts (1 million), economic revenue generated and its psychological impact on attendees, for example whether or not it is a "must-see" event (Hall, 1997: 3) and similarly Getz (1997: 6) claims that mega events should have a "prestige factor", "attract worldwide publicity" and should be a "must-see" event. Rooney (as cited in Getz, 1997) further specifies the requirements for qualifying as a sporting mega-event by stating that they are:

- Loaded with tradition;
- Attract a lot of media attention at international level to the point of "media overload"; and are
- Complemented by other smaller events that add to its greatness such as parades and festivals.

An example of such an event would be the Olympic Games which occur every four years. It occurs regularly and has enormous spin-offs for the host destination in terms of tourism, coverage by the media and of course, economic impact for the host destination (Getz, 1997: 6).

The standard definition of a hallmark event as stated by Ritchie is "Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long

term. Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status or timely significance to create interest and attract attention" (1984: 2). Hallmark events, by definition serve to divert national or international attention to the host community and to steer this community to the forefront of the tourism market for the period during which the event runs (Hall, 1997: 2). Burns and Mules (1986) identified four characteristics which identified hallmark events.

Firstly, demand is not only created for the event but also for related services such as accommodation, food, transport and entertainment. Secondly, demand is condensed into the event period and because it cannot be produced before the event actually occurs, the above-mentioned industries experience a great strain as well as 'peaking' problems. Thirdly, these peaking problems affect the distribution of these services as well as the quality of what is produced. Fourthly, major benefits arise from new benefits attracted from outside the host region through exported goods and services (Hall, 1997: 3).

Hallmark events are also identified as those which require significant public funds to stage and those which occur outside of the normal range of events and is thus an unusual or infrequent occurrence for event attendees (Hall, 1997: 3). Hallmark events are identified as those that have a significant economic and social impact (Hall, 1997: 4), which are consequently affected by the extent of the international dimension associated with the event.

The CAPPCT does not fulfil the three most prominent requirements of a mega event. The 2003 event attracted approximately 38 000 participants, of which approximately 1 500 were international. Therefore the majority of participants are from within South African borders. If each participant was accompanied by an average of 2 non-participants, the event would attract approximately 69 000 people to the Western Cape. This figure excludes those participants who already reside in the Western Cape to avoid double-counting. When considering the psychological or prestige value associated with this event, it is far less than that of a true mega event such as the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup. Based on these factors alone, it can be said that the CAPPCT is not a mega event. Despite these

factors though, the 2003 event was reported to have resulted in a R310 million income to the Western Cape economy<sup>5</sup>.

However, the event satisfies many of the characteristics of a hallmark event. Firstly, its classification as one of the cycling events in the Union Cycliste Internationale's (UCI) Golden Bike Series ensures media attention for the CAPPCT by way of the UCI's endorsement of the event as well as through the Golden Bike "network" that exists and the consequent database of cyclists that form this network. The CAPPCT is the only non-European event to be included in the Golden Bike Series. In addition, the cycle tour is a well-established event within Southern Africa and receives a great deal of media attention within these areas from the local newspapers and television stations, as well as the media sponsors of the event.

Secondly, the large number of visitors from outside of the Western Cape generate a great demand for accommodation, food, transport and entertainment, during the period that they spend in the host destination. The CAPPCT event peaks on the weekend of the main event when the Cycle Tour Expo is held and when most of the participants actually arrive in Cape Town. It is also at the Expo where registration takes place therefore it can be inferred that it is at this point when 'peaking' occurs. With associated events such as the Mountain Bike Challenge and the Giro del Capo commencing a week before the flagship event, it is possible that the peaking period could be prolonged in the years to come. Furthermore, the Western Cape government is a supporting sponsor of the CAPPCT<sup>4</sup>, indicating that public funds contribute to the staging of the event, in order to reap the benefits created by the increase in tourists that the event generates.

Finally, the economic and socio-cultural impacts of this event are numerous. In addition to the direct economic benefits of the event mentioned previously, the tourism multiplier gives rise to additional economic impacts. When considering socio-cultural impacts, an increased interest in a healthy lifestyle can be considered as a positive socio-cultural impact, and is strongly promoted by the sport and the event. A negative socio-cultural impact is the increased propensity for theft of property belonging to unknowing visitors to the area. After considering

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<sup>5</sup> [www.cycletour.co.za](http://www.cycletour.co.za)

all of the above, the CAPPCT can unequivocally be categorised as an annual hallmark event.

At the other end of the spectrum, we find small-scale or local events. Unlike their larger counterparts, these events draw relatively small numbers of people, usually from surrounding areas and occur much more regularly (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 192). An example of this would be a soccer tournament amongst a league of clubs in an area. Most scholars agree that the most notable distinction between hallmark events and these small-scale events is that the former are significantly more taxing on the host destinations than the latter (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 182 and Smith & Jenner, 1998: 75).

Getz (1998) defines sport-event marketing very simplistically by examining the supply and demand side of this market. These are neatly grouped as follows.

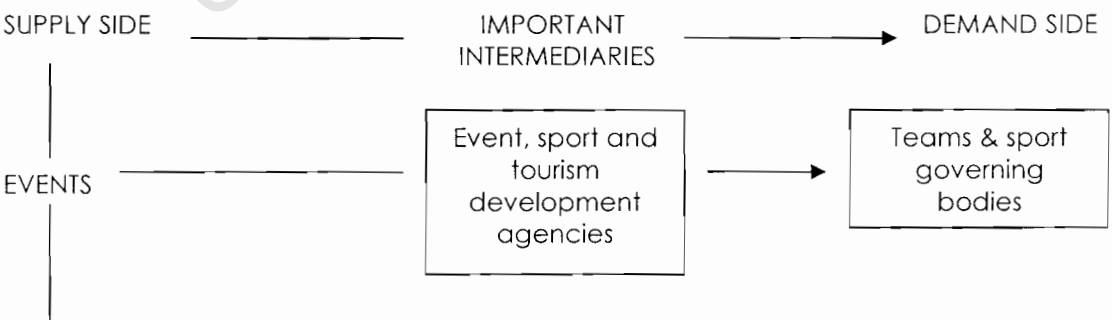
The supply side consists of:

- Venues and destinations;
- Services supplied to visitors;
- Media broadcasts/ event reports; and
- Sponsors that make this media coverage possible.

In a complementary role, the demand side consists of:

- Teams, leagues, sport-governing bodies;
- Athletes;
- Officials;
- Spectators; and
- Media.

It is in this capacity of demand and supply that the subject of events will be discussed further.



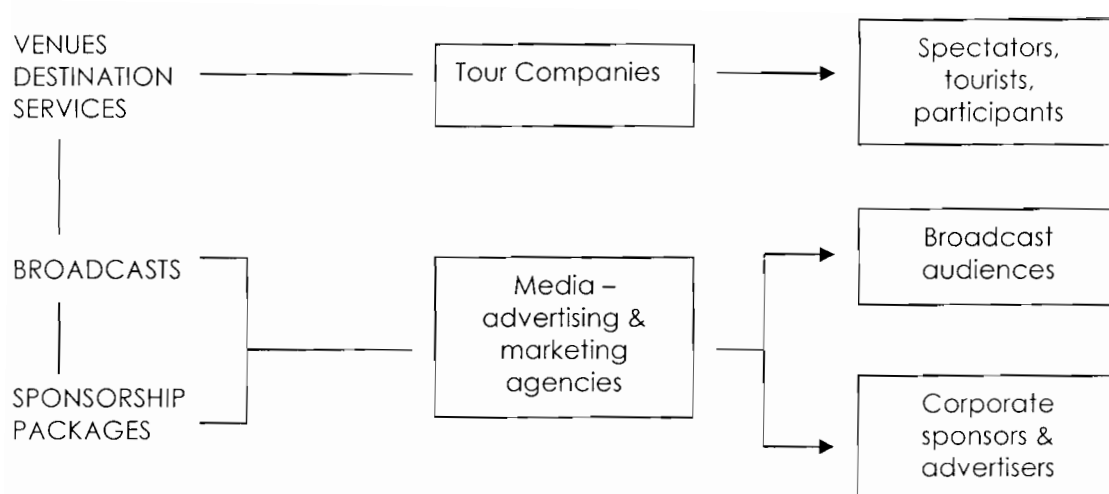


Figure 2. Key elements in the Sport-Event Marketing System

Source: Getz (1998: 8)

## 5.2 Supply of events

The supply and demand of sport tourism can be examined from two distinct perspectives, that of consumers who participate in or view the event and the host destination which ultimately aims to reap the benefits of doing so (Getz, 1998: 3).

### 5.2.1 Venues, destinations and services as sports event suppliers

As events proliferated and the economic and other benefits of hosting them became more apparent, hosting events became an honour and indeed a skill acquired and mastered by many cities.

Hosting mega/hallmark events is perceived to be one of the greatest boosts that a city could ever receive. Indeed one of the main reasons why cities vie for this privilege is because of the great degree of international exposure afforded by these events (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 182). They even go so far as to say that cities depend on these events to position themselves internationally (Smith & Jenner, 1998 : 75).

However, it is not any or every city that can successfully host a mega event. Getz identifies several unique characteristics of sport-event tourism, one of which is



that most of them – the mega events – are "biddable" (as stated in Hudson, 2003: 50). In other words, potential host destinations often have to prove their worth so to speak by supplying the best quality infrastructure, sporting facilities, a safe environment etc. Destinations have, over time, become acutely aware of this necessity and in the absence of these 'characteristics', authorities go about creating it (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 222).

The desire and for some, compulsion with becoming a world-class city capable of hosting world-class events can, and has in the past, led to the use of numerous ethically questionable methods (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993 : 222).

Harvey (As cited in Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 234) noted the following about cities that wish to function and be successful as hosts of mega-events or even that wish to be considered to this end. Among other things:

- Cities must be known hubs of culture and consumption.
- The economic importance of the culture and entertainment industries must be recognised.
- Famous events and celebrities are the most effective carriers of promotional messages and any destination affiliated with them becomes famous by association.

These characteristics are still applicable today as they undoubtedly were when this movement began. In attempts to enhance their cities and create the vibrant centres that would attract the big names of the sporting world the authorities undertook extensive leisure and consumer-oriented developments including convention centres, world-class hotels and large, up-market shopping centres (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 222). Often, sport authorities had no justifiable reason for choosing one destination over others, so authorities touted any and all sporting events in an attempt to be noticed and draw attention to their city (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 223).

As sports received more and more media attention, a distinctive 'world of sport' was created (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 225). In essence, a sport "information system" came into being which allowed the audiences to be significantly

enlarged. Sport therefore, became an important part of popular culture and has retained this position up until today (1993: 226).

This element of popular culture has developed to such an extent that those who belong to and believe in this culture are willing to travel to places where these events are held (Getz, 1998: 8). Destinations soon realized that visitors to their cities were a great source of income, particularly foreign visitors as they could be enticed to purchase souvenirs and other memorabilia. Upon the realization that many people are willing to travel great distances to attend hallmark sporting events, destinations concluded that hosting events would ultimately attract its patrons. Therefore, the degree of competition between these destinations, for events, increased tenfold thus aiding the global proliferation of hallmark sporting events (Getz, 1998: 9).

### **5.2.2 Media as suppliers to sports tourism events**

The media in the early twentieth century has been credited with creating a 'world of sport' or a 'shared information system' that allowed global audiences access to the latter world (Meyrowitz, 1985 as in Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 225). While initial coverage may have been via print media or broadcast, since the advent of television it was predominantly through this medium.

Gratton & Kakolakis (1997) noted the exceptional rise in revenue from TV broadcast rights. Television coverage has reached such proportions that narrowcasting is now possible i.e. broadcasting to a specific audience, which is evidence not only of media proliferation but that of leisure activities too (Hudson, 2003 : 60 and Getz, 1997 : 34)).

Smith & Jenner (1998: 89) argue that most international events are only international because of the participants and not the spectators. However media has allowed many of these to become true international events albeit through broadcasting to viewers who are not physically present at the event. In addition, the media also serves to make the destination look attractive so that people would want to visit it (Getz, 1997: 34).

"From the media point of view, news consists of events which can be recognized and interpreted as drama;...the drama most easily packaged for everyday consumption seems to be the drama of recognizable individuals: that is to say, of regulars, of celebrities, of stars" (Whitson & McIntosh, 1993: 225).

### 5.2.3 Sponsors as suppliers to sports tourism events

Sponsors have evolved significantly since the days when Greek cities sponsored successful athletes with free food and lodging. Today, the stakes are much higher. Not only are athletes sponsored but events are sponsored too with companies investing vast sums of money into events to ensure its success as well as to improve their brand equity through their affiliation with either the event or its participants. The trend is towards sponsoring events where consumers are participants and not just spectators (Getz, 1997: 24). Sponsorship is defined as "the provision of resources (fiscal, human and physical) by an organization directly to an event or activity in exchange for direct association with the event or activity" (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 167).

In most cases, commercial sponsors will do so in order to target a specific market i.e. theirs and the events' target market coincide (Smith & Jenner, 1998: 75). But ultimately the greatest reward is becoming (by association) a member of the sporting fraternity and thus, popular culture. This in essence, allows a sponsor to penetrate its target market. Examples of this abound in SA with events such as the ABSA Currie Cup, the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon, MTN Cricket, Vodacom Rugby etc. Furthermore, sponsors, in an attempt to reap the maximum benefit, also lend their marketing expertise thereby improving both the scale and quality of many events (Hudson, 2003: 61).

The need to become a sponsor stems from the fact that levels of competition in the corporate world are ever-increasing and organisations now have to think of alternative ways to reach their target market, over and above traditional advertising. Consequently, companies struggle to stand out and differentiate themselves but one way of ensuring this is to spend their advertising dollars on sponsorship (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 168). Other benefits that can be derived from this includes:

- The image of good corporate citizenship;

- Displaying an interest in the community;
- Visibility for the company, brand, products and services; and
- Creating favourable media interest and publicity for the company.

The sponsor-event relationship is thus symbiotic because corporations promote themselves through events and events are consequently dependent on the revenue and services that they derive from their sponsors (Getz, 1997: 24).

University of Cape Town

### **5.3 Demand for events**

Similarly, the demand for events focuses on the various parties involved in the actual event, albeit from vastly different perspectives.

#### **5.3.1 Participants, Governing Bodies and Officials as elements of demand**

There is seldom one target market for a sporting event as each of the groups mentioned as elements of the demand side of events, form a unique target market and consequently each group derives a unique benefit (Hudson, 2003: 56).

Similarly, each of the groups attend the event for a different reason therefore advertising and promotion efforts for each group should be unique to that group (Getz, 1998: 9). The same can be said for spectators and the media. The extent of this targeted approach and the design of the message will also depend on whether the event is spectator or participant oriented because as Getz notes, events can be either one or the other (1998: 8).

Because demand for sporting activities is increasing the world over, each of these target markets is increasing in size proportionally i.e. as more sponsorship dollars become available; more athletes are able to compete professionally. As more athletes compete professionally, more regulating bodies are set in place in these industries. Consequently, new celebrities are created by the media who are constantly searching for new events and celebrities to tout (Getz, 1998: 10).

The above-mentioned proliferation of sport codes has vast implications for target markets. While it has been noted that traditional sport tourists are middle-aged males (Hudson, 2003: 56), the new emerging sports increasingly appeal to new markets. Today, spectator profiles for different sports are seldom similar – the differences are becoming increasingly apparent.

### 5.3.2 Media as an element of demand

Media does not only demand not only action from the sport being played but also glamour and stardom from its players. Indeed it is the media itself that has created this glamour and elevated athletes to the same level of stardom as many Hollywood actors (McKeever, 1999: 166).

It is this demand that drives television companies to pay such exorbitant prices for the rights to exclusively broadcast certain sporting events, to the degree that many television companies have even risked heavy debt exposure to secure these profitable and strategically important events (Arundel & Roche, 1998: 62). It is evident that demand is ever increasing and has grown to such proportions that narrowcasting is now possible; television channels are able to target specific markets with their broadcasting (Hudson, 2003: 60). Despite the fact that the media are hungry for new stars and drama, they are in fact, in far greater control than the sport as they hold the power to promote or destroy the sport and its heroes (Arundel & Roche, 1998: 59). The media can turn certain events into "light entertainment" and sensationalize certain occurrences to create publicity and mass consumption for the cause, destination or individuals (Getz, 1997: 33).

Saayman & Uys

## 6. The consumer behaviour of the sports tourist

By definition, sport tourism implies travelling away from one's home to a foreign place in order to, in one form or another, be part of a sporting event, often at great financial and sometimes even personal cost. The question of why an individual would travel great distances for the sole purpose of taking part in a sporting event is then raised.

Before consumption of any product, whether tangible or intangible, consumers experience the following stages. Initially, consumers will evaluate their alternatives, secondly they will indicate an intention to purchase and finally they will make the purchase decision and act on it (Kotler, 2000: 181-182). During this process, consumers are subjected to internal as well as external motivational forces. Internal forces are those which exist within their minds and stem from their needs and motivations, identity and experiences. External forces though, stem from outside influences in their lives such as friends, family, cultural and sub-cultural influences.

**6.1 Internal factors**

Internal factors refer to the needs, motivations, identity and other completely intrinsic aspects of the human mind that have an influence on the ultimate action.

**6.1.1 Needs and motivations**

Maslow (1954) prescribed the hierarchy of needs – a system which is still widely used by marketers, even today. This hierarchy proposes that people have different levels of needs which they seek to fulfil. The lower level needs are fulfilled first and the individual then works his/her way up that hierarchy as each type of need is realized.

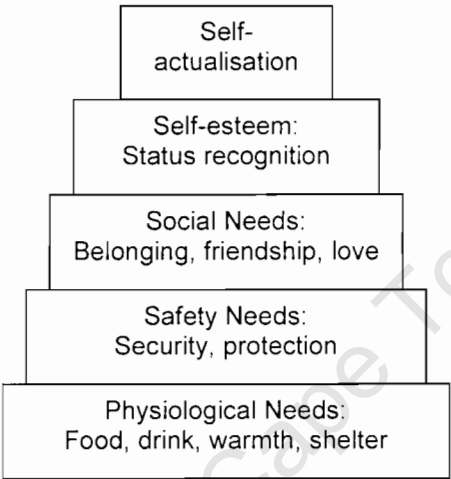


Figure 3: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Source: Maslow (1954)

Motivation has been defined as an “activated state consisting of drive, urges, wishes, desires that lead to goal-directed behaviour”. The study of consumer motivation can be complex, (Funk, Mahoney & Ridinger, 2002). Turco, Riley & Swart (2002: 45) state that motivation “lies in ways to express desires and interests”. Two specific challenges have been highlighted. Firstly, the relationship between motivation and behaviour must be understood and secondly, one must compile a list of motivations comprehensive enough to capture the vast number of motivating factors (Funk, Mahoney & Ridinger, 2002).

Turco, Riley & Swart (2002: 47-48) completed this notion by grouping motivations for sports tourism into nine categories which could act either as push or pull factors for an individual. These are listed below.

- Escapism
- Exploration and self-evaluation
- Relaxation
- Prestige
- Regression
- Enhancement of kinship relationships
- Facilitation of social interaction
- Novelty
- Education

Pull factors are associated with the event and include things such as atmosphere, the actual competition and the sense of festival (atmosphere) of the event (Kim & Chalip, 2004: 697). A third aspect to motivations was also identified in terms of constraints such as monetary cost of travelling to an event, particularly if this includes long-haul travel and risk, physical or otherwise, of travelling to the event (Kim & Chalip, 2004 : 697).

Travel for the sole purpose of attending (sporting) events, as compared to ordinary leisure travel should be carefully considered because in each of these cases, the benefits derived from attending these events is often unique and special enough to warrant the hassle of travelling (Getz & Cheynne, 1997). However, it must be considered that the term "event" covers a large spectrum and indeed the benefits derived from a religious pilgrimage such as Hajj for example would differ vastly from attending the Wimbledon Tennis Tournament – although for some, this may be a pilgrimage in its own right.

Even within the category of sports, motivations for attending can differ. Firstly, attending as a fan (or spectator) can mean several things. If one is supporting a team, one would often be a part of a group of supporters and the benefit derived could then be belonging and sharing; an urgent and deep sense of commitment to the sport (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 45), or when attending a golf tournament for example, the benefit might be pure entertainment (Getz & Cheynne, 1997).



Secondly, attending as an actual participant in the event would also vary according to the sport being played. Team sports might, again serve mostly to satisfy the social needs; the desire for competition or, in the case of professional sports, monetary benefits (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 45); whereas individual sports, may serve to satisfy the need for self-actualisation instead and be more individualistic.

In their research into the motivations of recreational soccer players to attend the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea, Kim and Chalip (2004) found that the athletic prowess associated with the game of soccer, eustress, "vicarious achievement", identification with the team representing the respondents' country and an interest in the players participating in the tournament were the main motivating factors. Although the primary source of these motivations is the game itself and is thus 'external' to the respondents', the sensations and emotions that are provoked through the sport are definitely intrinsic to the individual.

The research into the FIFA World Cup differs from that which is being conducted by the researcher in that the sport that it focuses on, namely soccer, is a team sport, relying on the performance and success of a team and is arguably the most popular sport in the world. The sport of cycling as in the CAPPCT, however is an individual sport and aside from a few key people, it does not have many obviously identifiable representatives as with soccer, outside of the cycling subculture. This event is also far more recreational than competitive as opposed to the FIFA World Cup therefore it will not have the same level of transience or competitiveness, consequently, the findings are expected to differ substantially from that of Kim & Chalip.

It should also be mentioned that participants and spectators are not the only types of sport tourists that exist. A third category is identified which is that of organizers of events – for this group the motive for travel may be either monetary benefits or a compulsion to do so because of the individual's status as an official of the sport.

Getz and Cheynne (1997) suggests that the basic needs stated in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy can be directly linked to motivations for attending and participating in events. At the lower level, participation yields the benefit of exercise; attendance can yield benefits such as relaxation, food (perhaps packing a picnic with the family). Perhaps the most dominant need is that of self-esteem satisfied through

belonging to and being accepted by a group and sharing a subculture. And finally, at the highest level one can truly discover oneself through what can only be described as life-changing events, learning about others and oneself – all in fulfilment of the need for self-actualisation (Ryan, 1997). Another model exists in that of the 'seeking and escaping' model proposed by Ahola (1982). It suggests that, in an attempt to escape their daily routines, individuals seek rewards offered in the form of physical achievement or social belonging. Motivations would thus differ, from individual to individual, as it depends on things like environment, needs and preferences (Getz & Cheynne, 1997).

Furthermore, Pearce and Caltabiano (1986) elaborated on Getz' first notion stating that the needs and motivations would differ according to the experience of different travellers. They stated that more experienced travellers would require higher level needs whereas the less experienced travellers would attain that sense of escapism at much lower level needs. In so doing, the implication is that different events would then cater to the needs of travellers with different levels of experience.

#### **6.1.2 Identity**

Identity is another internal factor influencing consumers' decision-making. In today's modern society, many individuals identify themselves by the names, places, and brands etc that are most prominent in their direct and indirect surroundings (Anderson, 1979; Sugden & Tomlinson, 1999: 174). Consequently, sports that have huge followings often fulfil some of these identification needs; this is particularly true for sport fans. 'Fan' is an abbreviation of 'fanatic' and is in many ways, distinctly different from a spectator. For this reason, sport would mean different things for these two groups and should thus be defined differently.

Often one's leisure activities define one's identity to a great extent, bearing in mind that leisure activities are seldom done solitarily. Therefore, one's leisure companions can be an extension of one's own identity, but this will be discussed at greater length later on. In terms of sport, as per the above definition, an individual can take on several different roles. If one is to consider fans that identify with certain teams, they would do so in an unconscious attempt to increase their own self-esteem by associating themselves with

successful teams or individuals (Wahn & Branscome, 1993). Therefore, most individuals choose to support winning teams or individuals, thereby protecting their own self-image from negativity.

Cooley (1969) identified the "looking-glass" self which was composed of three elements namely: how we imagine others to see us; how we imagine others to judge us; and a sense of "self-feeling".

Mega sporting events, for example the FIFA World Cup and their magnitude impact on individual identities by encapsulating the antagonistic forces of wondering who one is versus global transformation (Sugden and Tomlinson, 1999: 176). The concept of identity is one that has been the cause of widespread debate, particularly today as the force known as globalisation continues to grow; individual identities are harder to create independently when they are almost being enforced on one. Sport is emerging as an institution in its own right and a global one at that implying that it provides people from different parts of the world with some common ground (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 49-50). In essence, identities are determined by society (Sugden & Tomlinson, 1999: 178).

Choosing to align or associate oneself with these teams also acts as a defence mechanism, whereby these individuals are less likely to fall prey to things such as depression (Wahn and Branscome, 1993) – they are, to all intents and purposes happy as a result of this association. Individuals who are a part of this team often apply the old adage that "there is safety in numbers" looking after and praising their own, while applying a fair degree of prejudice towards others (Sugden & Tomlinson, 1999: 171). Generally speaking, those who are highly allegiant with the team will be far more positive about a team's performance and future. They are also more likely to be allegiant with other fans and are incredibly knowledgeable about the individual or teams' history. Finally, these people attribute all achievements to internal factors (Wahn & Branscome, 1993).

For event participants, the situation differs somewhat in that they are able to celebrate their identities when surrounded by their team-mates or peers, during

participation. For them, any and all extensions of this identity which may be illustrated in their social lives, acts as a continuation of this celebration, however, during the actual athletic performance, this identity is instantiated (Green & Chalip, 1998).

## **6.2 External factors**

External factors are those which are not controlled by the consumer but are present in the consumer's environment or life and consequently influence their decisions.

### **6.2.1 Cultures and subcultures**

Cultures and subcultures are two externalities that greatly influence our behaviour, beliefs, values and ultimately our decision-making. To a great extent, culture is not something that we control, but something that we are born into although this does not remain the case as we grow older.

Kotler defines culture as a set of values, perceptions, behaviours and preferences that an individual shares with its family or other institutions (2000: 161). A subculture is in essence, a smaller culture within the parent group i.e. a more specifically identified group within the parent culture. Subcultures may be identified by elements such as race, age, occupation etc. Each sport and its followers, therefore, can be labelled a subculture, while sport as a whole would be the parent culture.

Donnelly (1981) identifies two categories of subcultures namely, ascribed and achieved. Ascribed subcultures are the ones alluded to earlier i.e. those that individuals are born into and have little or no control over e.g. birthplace, family etc. Achieved subcultures are those that individuals choose and even strive to become members of – often later in life when they are able to make their own decisions. Donnelly (1981) continues to list certain characteristics of achieved subcultures.

The first of these is referred to as "Identifiable groups". Becoming a member of an achieved subculture, by definition, implies that one has chosen to become a part of this particular group. Because it is such a conscious choice, one ultimately has decided to merge the group's identity with one's own. In order to do this, one

must believe in what the particular subculture stands for and display a certain degree of commitment towards being a part of it and maintaining that membership over time. The commitment and choice often lead the individual to openly display their identity as a member of the particular subculture.

Secondly, he refers to "cultural characteristics". Culture and consequently subculture is not static, but instead changes over time as the internal and external environmental changes impact on it. Therefore, the same behaviour can have different meanings at different times.

Donnelly's (1981) third characteristic is that of a "distinctive nature". All subcultures have certain commonalities with the general society in which they exist and all subcultures experience a degree of conflict with those same societies. Depending on the extent of this conflict, some subcultures might choose to distance themselves from the larger society more than others, thus making the degree of exclusivity of the subculture greater. Therefore, they will be far more distinctive, as a group.

The fourth and final characteristic identified by Donnelly (1981) is the "fulfilment of individual needs". Subcultures would not have members if there were no individual benefits to be reaped from membership. Three types of membership rewards which have been identified are psychic, social and material. The most prominent *psychic* reward that can be gained is that of identity, something that many seek and often struggle to formulate. By belonging to a subculture an individual is able to gain a "ready-made" identity and now has assistance from others' in its formulation.

Another reward is that of status; this is particularly true for members of the more exclusive subcultures i.e. those that are further removed from everyday society and from everyday individuals. *Social* rewards are all those mentioned in the above sections i.e. group acceptance, group involvement, being a member of a close-knit community etc. Finally, *material* rewards – Donnelly (1981) states that the currency of exchange in cultures is information and the reward for being a member of a subculture is being privileged to learn certain items of information that are only shared with other members.

The above-mentioned rewards indicate several of Donnelly's findings from research on subcultures and he continues to note that subcultures are becoming that much more important in modern society as a result of the decline in social classes and the increasing importance of leisure activities (1981). Furthermore, Green & Chalip (1998) believe that the growing popularity of sport subcultures is a result of the increased global popularity of sport through globally broadcast events such as the Soccer World Cup and the Olympic Games. They go on to say that these subcultures need to be understood before other activities can be sold to them. However, several subcultures exist within a vast group and are categorised according to: spectators, fans and participants. Even within the category of participants, two groups exist (Green & Chalip, 1998).

- Activity participants who participate purely for recreational purposes and are more interested in the game than the outcome; and
- Players participate for the purpose of competition.

Through sporting subcultures, these participants are able to affirm and experience their identities as well as share their subcultures with their peers. Identity is thus a central part of culture and vice versa. Sugden & Tomlinson (1999) state that cultural identity is "a matter of becoming as well as being – cultural identities come from somewhere and have histories while undergoing constant transformation". Sport is therefore an important mechanism for "expressing unity within difference" and allows individuals to express one of their identities - in modern-day society, multiple identities exist within one individual (Sugden & Tomlinson, 1999: 178).

### **6.3 The social aspects of sport**

As the sports industry becomes more developed and prominent in the modern world, it must be acknowledged that this is an industry that, through its players and stakeholders is able to exercise a great deal of power over the hundreds of thousands of loyal followers.

Ball & Loy (1975: 13) identified certain functions of sport, many of which are still relevant today. They found that social values, beliefs and ideologies are often transmitted through the structure of sports. In addition, slogans and chants that accompany

various teams, sports and even sponsors, give rise to qualities such as "mental and physical fitness, aggression, competitiveness, perseverance, self-discipline and subordination to a group." In their research into the motivations for attending college football games, a key finding of Gibson, Williming & Holdnak (2003) was the popularity of 'tailgating' amongst event attendees – tailgating is the socialising that occurs before the actual event amongst attendees. It usually involves gathering in parking areas close to the arena to engage in pre-game banter and barbecues. This is a clear example of the feeling of unity and shared culture amongst event attendees through their common characteristics as supporters of team. Ball & Loy's third finding was that sport is known to discipline youth through instilling teachings such as hard work and diligence.

Similarly, the conflicts that occur in sport are often a reflection of those that exist in society (Ball & Loy, 1975: 17). The struggle for women's soccer to reach the same height of popularity enjoyed by men's soccer in South Africa, to be paid equal sums to that of male players and enjoy similar sponsorships, could be described as the legacy of sexism – this could be regarded as a societal problem illustrated in the modern-day sport industry.

The CAPPCT also identifies with that mentioned above. Firstly, cyclists are by definition, a subculture in their own right. The participants of this event also engage in activities such as 'tailgating' after the event when the post-event activities take place, however the issue of the individuality associated with the sport of cycling arises again. The supporters of the college football team have a common goal in that they all desire for their team to succeed and it is this common goal that unites them. However, the participants of the cycle tour often have individual goals and in most cases each strives to improve on their previous personal time records. Therefore, the research being conducted will aim to determine if and how the social functions of the sport differ.

## **7. Impacts of Major Sporting Events**

The after-effects of sporting events can be felt in various ways, sometimes it is immediate (impact) and other times the effects are felt for years to follow. It should be noted that impacts differ distinctly from benefits. Impacts generate activity but this activity is not always beneficial, it can be either good or bad depending on the perspective from which one looks at it. The economic and socio-cultural effects of sporting events are the most widely researched effects. The positive and negative effects of hallmark sporting events are listed on table 1 and are discussed in more detail in the next section.

### **7.1 Economic Impacts**

Economic effects of sport tourism are researched most extensively, compared to other effects, yet despite this, these are rather difficult to quantify (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 170). The reasons for this will become apparent later. Tourism, and consequently, sport tourism are responsible for economic impacts such as increased national income as a result of the direct foreign exchange that enters the country's economy; the increased employment that is generated by the tourism industry as a result of the by-products of this industry and finally the improved balance of payments of the host country when it generates and attracts large numbers of visitors (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 172). Furthermore, economic effects are perpetuated further due to the tourism multiplier. Table 1 lists other impacts of hallmark events.



Impact	Positive	Negative
<b>Economic</b>	Increased expenditures New employment	Price increases during event Real estate speculation Underused facilities post-event
<b>Tourism/ commercial</b>	Increased awareness of region as tourism destination	Acquisition of poor reputation due to inadequate facilities or improper practices
<b>Physical</b>	New and/or improved facilities	Environmental damage, noise, litter, traffic incidents, overcrowding
<b>Socio-cultural</b>	Increase in local interest and participation in activity associated with event Strengthened regional values and traditions	Commercialisation of personal or private activities Excessive drinking by visitors, increased muggings, thefts Modification of event to accommodate tourism
<b>Psychological</b>	Increased national pride and community spirit	Tendency to defensive attitudes regarding host regions Likelihood of misunderstandings leading to host/visitor hostility
<b>Political</b>	Enhanced international recognition of region as place to invest Propagation of political values held by government	Exploitation of local people to satisfy politically elite Distortion of nature of event to reflect current political values

Table 1. Impacts of hallmark events

(Source: Collins, 1991)

### 7.1.1 Measuring economic impacts

The economic impact of tourism cannot be easily measured (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 172) because it is not evenly distributed or static but varies and is dependent on several factors. These factors include the level of development of the country's economy, the degree of dependence placed on imported goods within that economy; and finally, the degree of development of the tourism industry and the economy of the relevant country.

This measurement is further exacerbated when the following is taken into consideration. Whether or not all event-goers' expenditure is included; failing to account for reasons why people attend events; when sponsorships are included but not distinguished as being internal allocations or "new money"; and finally not accounting for leakages. The first aspect is of particular concern because if all the event-goers' (those who reside in the host area and those who do not) expenditure is taken into account, the possibility of double-counting arises. Therefore, one also has to consider that not all money is spent in the destination area but also in transit and one has to determine what proportion of time was spent in the host area before determining the amount of money that was spent due to the event (Getz, 1994: 441).

When researching the motivations of supporters of a college football team, Gibson, Willming & Holdnak (2003) found that these supporters (spectators) were more likely to extend their period of stay when an event occurred on the weekend. When considering the cycle tour, registration for the event occurs during the week preceding the event and ends on the day before the event, which guarantees that out-of-town residents spend at least one night in the host destination. Anything more than one night could potentially be considered incremental income as pre- and post-event stays are found to add to event-tourism income (Smith & Jenner, 1998: 81).

Tourism is one of the most resilient industries in the world. This has been illustrated in recent years through several events. For example, terror attacks such as those on the World Trade Centre in the United States in 2001 and the recession which followed did not deter people from travelling completely. Instead many chose to alter their destinations of choice and travel within their home countries or to other less "dangerous" countries, rather than the alternative of not travelling at all. Therefore, it can be concluded that tourism has a relatively elastic demand (Standeven & de Knop, 1999: 172) and it is for this reason that so many governments are so reliant on the industry for their country's financial success.

When calculating the economic impact of hosting sporting events the scale and regularity of the actual sporting event must also be factored into the equation. Regular events will add more to the economy over time and events that have wide geographic reach i.e. national or international, offer greater opportunities for revenue from merchandise etc (Standeven & de Knop, 1999: 180). However, to fully understand

and to objectively evaluate the economic impacts of a sporting event, one should acknowledge the incumbent economic costs associated with events as well. Again, these will vary in magnitude and severity according to the scale of the event.

Global sporting events will often experience difficulty in covering all its costs i.e. capital as well as operating, from ticket sales, sponsorship and the other primary sources. Consequently, the host destination's government would then provide the necessary financial assistance to cover the remaining costs (Burgan & Mules, 1992). By definition, government investment is one of the defining characteristics of a hallmark event. Governments are in the position to decide whether or not to grant this assistance and in the decision-making process they would try to ascertain whether the economic benefits derived from the event will exceed the cost of providing the finance.

A cost-benefit analysis is usually conducted to analyse the costs and benefits associated with an event and determine whether or not these events are truly beneficial to the destination in question (Burgan & Mules, 1992 and Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 182). Often, due to the great non-monetary benefits, the relevant authorities will not fully state or acknowledge the costs of the event or will not be completely transparent in what is made known to the public. They would usually release whatever information is necessary to put the event in a favourable light (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 58). A method of evaluation similar to the cost-benefit analysis is the Planning Balance Sheet which also takes non-monetary benefits into account. This method searches each impact individually and analyses the "severity, distribution and salience" of each impact (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 182). In so doing, both positive and negative effects are identified. These methods of evaluating events are very important and the final product should be made available to all parties that would be affected by these events. The winners and losers in each case are vastly different groups and often experience two sides of the same impact i.e. a benefit to some will be a gross disadvantage to others.

Furthermore, economic benefits are not only felt in the host region but also much further a field. It can reasonably be assumed that sport tourists makes purchases at various stages of their holidays, while at home (in preparation), while in transit, at the actual event, en route home after the event and upon reaching home again (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 54). Most of the economic impact occurs in the "support area" or

the actual town or city hosting the event in other words, in the area immediately surrounding the event location e.g. stadium.

### 7.1.2 Economic effects of Mega Events

"Mega events" have been defined to include events such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup. Consequently, these are two of the examples that will be discussed.

Existing research suggests that studies that are conducted prior to these games overestimate attendances to counter fears of overcrowding and overpricing (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 183). With particular reference to the 1984 Olympics in Los Angeles, it was found that a great deal of leisure tourists and business tourists diverted their travels away from the city in order to avoid the games. This resulted in a US\$ 331 million loss for the city. However, they learnt from the mistakes of past games and minimised municipal debt by refurbishing and reusing existing facilities instead of creating new ones.

Another example of a less than (economically) successful mega event was the 1976 FIFA World Cup held in Argentina. The benefits and costs (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 184) include:

Benefits:

- Generated resources worth US \$2 billion.
- The country gained refurbished and new stadia, housing and upgraded public facilities such as hospitals and transport.
- Income: US\$ 35 million from TV; US\$ 6 million from FIFA; US\$ 8 million from sponsors.

Costs:

- Generated US\$ 8 billion debt to World Bank and International Monetary Fund.
- Hosting the tournament and upgrading and building facilities cost US\$ 1 billion.
- Much of the income was lost to sponsors who were multinational companies.

With potentially great costs, the reasons why governments proceed to host such events remain questionable. Standeven & De Knop state that governments seek

to host mega events simply to showcase their country as a destination and culture to the world and to make the audience, sit up and pay attention (1999 : 184 and Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002: 182). Ultimately, staging mega sporting events implies that the government contributed financially to the cause and this in turn implies that government spending in another area was foregone. This is done under the premise that hosting a sporting event will set the destination in a favourable light and later attract more investors etc so that this spending will eventually be compensated (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 189).

When an event-goer recommends a host destination to others as a holiday destination, it can be considered as an indirect economic effect if it results in tourists visiting the host destination. This is often measured by researchers who ask event-goers if they would recommend the event to others (Getz, 1994 : 442).

### **7.1.3 Economic effects of small-scale events**

Small-scale events are defined as "regular season sporting competitions, international sporting fixtures, domestic competitions, Masters or disabled sports and the like" (Gibson, Wilson & Holdnak, 2003 : 182). Small-scale events usually utilise existing infrastructure, use minimal public funds and are more manageable in terms of crowding and congestion as opposed to hallmark events. They also minimise seasonality (Gibson, Wilson & Holdnak, 2003 : 182).

In most instances intermediate (e.g. Currie Cup Rugby matches) and small-scale events (e.g. community soccer club matches) are far less lucrative than the hallmark events and sometimes even less so than the forecasted monetary benefits. The benefits instead lay in other areas, for example, infrastructural improvements, human capital and experience and knowledge in the staging and planning of large events (Standeven & De Knop, 1999 : 184). These events serve as practice for staging large-scale events and serve as "hosting accolades" for the destination when bidding for the latter.

Small-scale events are more likely to occur on a regular basis whereas hallmark events occur periodically in one destination. Due to the great deal of planning and the large amount of resources invested in these events. Small-scale events can be implemented in a comparably short period of time and thus their

economic and societal effects are also far more immediate. However, these events can generate large economic benefits sometimes exceeding expectations of organisers (Standeven & de Knop, 1999: 186).

#### **7.1.4 The effect of the tourism multiplier**

Economies are made up of businesses or entities; none of these entities are isolated from each other, i.e. none of them can operate completely independently. At some point, they will need to purchase goods or services from another business. Therefore, companies that are very independent will not have a great effect on the economy within which they exist whereas companies that are very dependent will (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 67). In other words, the more dependent a business is, the more it requires from other businesses, and therefore its economic effect will be more magnified or multiplied.

Multipliers are not specific to the tourism industry but are applicable to economies as a whole. Multipliers contain three types of income. Firstly, direct income – this is the amount of tourist expenditure that remains after taxes, profits, wages and money spent on imported goods and services are subtracted (Getz, 1994: 442). These 'subtracted' values are termed leakages because they effectively 'leak' out of the economy (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 67). The second type of income is termed induced income. This is household income that is derived from the direct income, which is in turn spent on goods and services by members of the household. This expenditure experiences the same leakages as the initial direct income. A third aspect is added to this cycle. The initial income that occurs results in transactions between businesses within the host economy and this is termed indirect income (Getz, 1994: 442). Many believe that a lot of employment is created because of the incremental effect of the tourism multiplier but this is not always the case because most event employees are in effect, volunteers (Getz, 1994: 440).

For example an ordinary regional sporting event such as a Currie Cup rugby match, will generate direct revenues from ticket sales, stadium advertising, corporate suites, catering (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 180). In addition to this, visitors or out-of-towners will spend on things such as travel, shopping, eating, drinking, souvenirs or memorabilia all of which are examples of indirect income

and sometimes indirect job creation. In turn, some of this income is then spent on paying employees, general consumption, maintenance (paying bills) and other run-of-the-mill expenses as well as “leaks” (saving money and thereby removing it from the cycle). This is known as the multiplier effect. This example is illustrated in the following flow diagram.

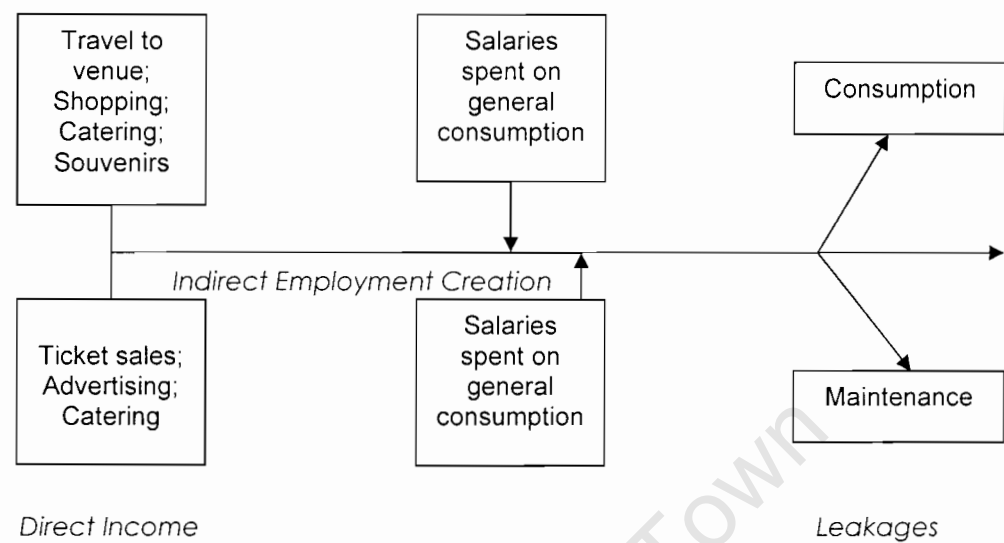


Figure 4: An illustration of the multiplier effect in terms of a Currie Cup Rugby Match

### 7.1.5 Economic costs of a hallmark sporting event

The costs involved in staging hallmark sporting events are far-reaching and not just financial. The first type of cost includes various payments made to the local government for municipal services such as traffic control, refuse collection and having emergency services on hand as well as increased property prices (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 58). Furthermore, income leakages and increased ticket prices are other examples of financial costs.

New facilities are only a benefit to the host destination if they are a new investment, however once they have been built and the event has passed, the cost of operating that facility becomes the onus of the host community (Getz, 1994: 440).

The second type of cost is opportunity cost, the cost of a change in spending to the host destination. An example of this was illustrated in the example of the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games where the opportunity cost of hosting the games to the city was US\$ 331 million, lost due to potential tourists choosing not to visit the city as a result of the games (Standeven & De Knop, 1999 : 183). A similar and adjacent concept is that of expenditure switching. This occurs when public funds are diverted from one area of government spending in the education or health sectors for example, to fund the event in question (Burgan & Mules, 1992).

#### **7.1.6 Maximising economic gain**

Sporting events are not temporary. They present opportunities which should be grabbed and can be capitalized on. The benefits of these events need not occur only when the event does but can instead be prolonged through correct and intelligent strategies.

Standeven & De Knop (1999: 188) suggest several strategies. Firstly, they recommend extending the period or regularity of the event; holding the event during the off-peak tourism season; holding introductory or follow-up events or having the same event for a different target market. Furthermore, they also recommend strategies such as increasing media penetration and extending the event to create profitable merchandising opportunities.

In addition to these Collins (1991) suggests creating satellite events; cloning the event in a different region or regions; transforming the event; magnifying the event's scope and maximising the involvement of volunteers so as to reduce costs. The CAPPCT has adopted this strategy by expanding the event to include satellite events such as the Mountain Bike Challenge, the Giro del Capo, the Junior Tour, the Trike Tour and the well-known Lifestyle Exhibition.

These strategies are all ways of extending and truly maximizing the economic benefit of the event. All of these cannot obviously be applied at once and when deciding which one to utilize, the event itself, its nature etc must also be considered.



## **7.2 Socio-cultural impacts of sporting events on the host destination**

Tourism is a form of social interaction that brings people from different parts of the world together. The ensuing relationship often impacts on the host destination and sets in motion the wheels of socio-cultural change, in that destination (Sharpley, 1999: 277-278).

This interaction gives rise to trends, defined as a pattern of human behaviour (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 213). The extent of interaction that occurs will determine the extent of the social and cultural change that occurs or similarly the impact of the trends that emerge. According to Sharpley (1999: 278) social and cultural change differ because effects of the former are far more immediate (for example prostitution) than that of the latter – cultural effects have a more long-term impact on the community in that they affect the values, attitudes and beliefs of the community (for example, changes in the language spoken).

### **7.2.1 The effect of tourists on the socio-cultural environment**

The socio-cultural impact of tourists is similar to the economic impact in the sense that it is not static or consistent but depends on certain variables whose presence will make the effects on the community either more or less emphatic. Essentially, the degree of difference that exists between the host culture and the culture of the visitor is what determines how severe the social and cultural changes will be (Sharpley, 1999: 278-280).

The first of these factors is the number of tourists that will visit the host community - a small host community with a large number of visitors (relative to its size) will feel these impacts to a much greater extent compared to a large community (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 206 and Sharpley, 1999: 278). When considering that a mega event such as the Olympics, which attracts more spectators to a host destination than any other event in the world (Smith & Jenner, 2003) the size of the host community becomes somewhat irrelevant as impacts of an event of such great magnitude are bound to be felt. Secondly, the degree of importance placed on the tourism industry plays a role, in that communities that are totally dependent on tourism are far more affected by socio-cultural changes as a result of this dependence.

Thirdly, the stage of tourism development that the destination is in will determine how it will cope with the change that occurs. Destinations that are in advanced stages of development generally have more control over the tourism industry and are thus able to lessen the effect of the impact to some degree. In a similar vein, destinations that experienced rapid development are more likely to be overwhelmed by the changes facing them than those which experienced slower development which allowed them more time to adjust to those changes (Sharpley, 1999: 279-280). In terms of hosting large-scale events such as the FIFA World Cup, destinations that are in advanced stages of development are more likely to bid for the opportunity to host these events and be successful at it. The implication therefore, is that these destinations will be somewhat better-equipped to deal with the ensuing change that occurs as a result of hosting this event.

Another factor to consider is the extent to which these tourists actually interact with the community. Over the years, numerous typologies have been created to explain the behaviour of these different types of tourists. Smith's (1991: 89) seven grouping typology best describes these tourists as it includes all types of tourists. They are listed below.

- *Explorers* travel in very small groups, immerse themselves in the local culture to become one with it and fully adapt to the local conditions.
- *Elite* tourists, while also adapting to local conditions easily, are touring and do not remain in one place for very long.
- *Offbeat* tourists seek a break from the norm which is found in their destination of choice; they travel in relatively large groups and do not fully adapt to the host destination's conditions.
- *Unusual* tourists seek an unusual experience within a predictable package. Their interest and degree of adaptability is only mild.
- *Incipient mass* tourists travel in larger numbers but represent the independent mass tourists i.e. making their own arrangements and planning their own itineraries.
- *Mass tourists* also travel in large numbers (this being the prime impact that they have on the host community) and prefer to observe rather than interact with the host culture.
- *Charter tourists* have standardized demands and preferences; travel in very large groups and demand Western amenities.

Two views to Smith's typologies exist. On the one hand, it can be argued that explorers and elite tourists are hardly noticed in the community because they adapt so easily and seemingly become a part of it whereas mass and charter tourists overwhelm the community by visiting it "en masse" and expecting amenities etc to be supplied to them the way it would be in their destinations of origin. Alternatively, the degree to which the latter groups impact on the host culture is minimal, when compared to that of the former groups. This is because the latter groups (mass tourists) display a less genuine interest in the host culture and have no real desire to interact with it, whereas explorers do and therefore are more prone to giving rise to cultural changes or creating confusion (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 208 and Page et al, 1998: 277).

### **7.2.2 The response of the host community**

Feelings, emotions and opinions are seldom static and often change over time. Similarly, the host community's attitude and feelings towards leisure tourists will most likely not remain the same but instead change over a period of time. In the case of events, the stated period of time is much shorter and is determined by the length of the event. In the case of *mega* events, the community is likely to have been prepared for the change and while this might lessen the impact of their reaction, it could also force a more immediate reaction.

*"The degree to which conflict occurs depends on the similarity of standards of living, the number of visitors and the extent to which visitors adapt to local norms"* (Mill & Morrison, 1998 : 213).

Doxey (1975) proposed the irritation index as a means of measuring hosts' attitudes over time. The four stages of this index are summarized in the following table.

Stage	Characteristics	Symptoms
Stage 1	Euphoria	Visitors welcomed Little formal planning or development
Stage 2	Apathy	Visitors are taken for granted Contact becomes formalized and commercial
Stage 3	Annoyance	Nearing saturation point Locals become concerned about tourism Attempts to improve infrastructure
Stage 4	Antagonism	Hostility from locals towards tourists Planners attempt to limit damage Promotion is increased to offset deteriorating image

Table 2: Doxey's Irritation Index

(Source: Doxey, 1975 as cited in Standeven & de Knop, 1999: 209)

Furthermore changes in the host community can occur in several areas. These include language changes through acquiring foreign labour, the host community aspiring to be and talk like the visitors, the necessity to learn the language of visitors for transactions. Tourists can choose to partake in the local religion in an attempt to enrich their experience of that destination. In so doing they can also offend the locals or alternatively, they can offend them by having an oblivious attitude towards their religion. Other effects on the host community can occur because of differing health levels and services in the host community and the tourists' home destinations (Page, Brunt & Busby, 2001: 281-283). Sex tourism is a prime problem associated with tourism in general as it almost always develops alongside the tourism industry as an easy, albeit illegal, form of money-making. Consequently, it results in the spread of diseases such as HIV/AIDS and a general unhealthy social environment (Mill & Morrison, 1998: 214-215).

### 7.3 Positive socio-cultural impacts

One of the most positive socio-cultural impacts includes the effect on the urban infrastructure. In most cases new infrastructure is built in the form of stadia or existing infrastructure is improved. Either way, jobs are created or ultimately the economy benefits from this (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 212). Other infrastructural improvements that stem from events would include developments such as building hotels, conference facilities and improving public transportation systems, for example. Often, these changes are not once off and the effects thereof are felt long after it has been completed in the form of social benefits, if not financial. These sport complexes can also serve as tourist attractions in their own right or their existence can serve to generate interest in the region by investors (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 213).

Another socio-cultural benefit includes the psychological aspects. These are often far greater and a lot more difficult to measure. Hosting hallmark events can be very beneficial for many destinations in terms of creating and stirring feelings of nation-building and national unity, both of which were experienced in South Africa after hosting and winning the 1995 Rugby World Cup. Host communities enjoy feelings of prestige and extreme pride in being able to show off their culture and share it with the rest of the world (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 213). Strengthening of the traditional values and the cultural pride which is felt are both regarded as positive effects of sport tourism. Research has also found that after hosting large sporting events, ethnocentrism is likely to increase as the host nation becomes more aware of itself and its culture. In addition, destinations feel a certain sense of pride through being home to a winning team which adds to the host destination's image, some even go so far as to say that this is equally valuable to the economic revenue received (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 215).

Similarly, Long and Sanderson (2001) identify the benefits experienced by the immediate communities which host the event:

- Enhanced confidence and self-esteem;
- Improved capacity to take initiatives;
- A collective identity and increased cohesion;
- Pride in their community;
- Improvements in the environment;
- Improved employment opportunities;

- Income and employment generation; and
- Health improvements.

A third socio-cultural benefit of sports tourism is that of fostering cultural understanding. Sports tourism differs from the ordinary leisure tourism because sport tourists all have sport in common, which could serve to increase tolerance of each other. Therefore, both hosts and visitors are more willing to want to learn about each others' cultures and customs and this is even truer in the case of smaller events because the two groups are in closer contact with each other (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 214).

A fourth and somewhat contentious subject is that of preserving cultural traditions. Often when events are staged, displays of the traditional culture are exhibited in order to educate visitors about it. Some may argue that this is not an authentic display and that it cheapens or commodifies the culture whereas others may say that it allows the community to remain in touch with its roots and remember their cultural beginnings (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 215 and Mill & Morrison, 1998: 214-215).

Long & Sanderson (2001) identify several factors that ensure that benefits from sporting events are shared by the community and not by individuals. These include:

1. *Summative* – it may result in multiple individual benefits
2. *Reinvestment* – individuals learn skills that enable them to help others
3. *Shared benefits*
4. *Consequential benefits*
5. *Communality* – benefits from interaction, being together and sharing experience.
6. *For us by us* – empowerment associated with control
7. *Sum plus* – the whole is greater than the sum of the parts

#### **7.4 Negative socio-cultural impacts**

Standeven & De Knop note one key difference between tourists and their hosts i.e. while one group is at work; the other is at play (1999: 216). This difference is the root of many problems experienced by the groups with regard to each other.

Each of the above-mentioned positives also has a negative.

Firstly, upgrading existing facilities and building new ones could have numerous other ripple effects aside from just resulting in increased employment. For example, the employment that is needed for this venture may not match the skills of the unemployed in the area, therefore, people matching those skills will have to be 'imported' from other areas – thereby leaving the local unemployed back at square one and resentful as well (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 218).

Secondly, while fostering their need or desire for tolerance about each other's culture, tourists might unknowingly offend their hosts' culture through their dress (e.g. too revealing), language, gestures which might have a completely different meaning in their culture etc. Language can particularly present numerous obstacles. Some cultures may be insulted by people who have no knowledge about their language or by the fact that they have to learn or adapt to their visitors' language in order to assist communication. Furthermore, they may feel that their language is threatened by the influx of visitors – perhaps more so with sport as English has become the language of choice in the global sport arena (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 227).

Thirdly, as the effects of globalization are being felt throughout the world, Western culture is becoming dominant in many areas and likewise Western customs are being adopted in many areas. Locals who cater to the needs of tourists may begin to feel resentful and as though they are sacrificing too much of their own culture, beliefs and customs to satisfy their visitors. (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 221). Therefore, hosts need to strike a balance between what is authentically their culture and what is adopted from the Western culture to please their visitors. In so doing, they are able to retain their unique qualities that made them desirable as a destination to begin with (1999: 227).

Fourthly, spectator violence is another negative socio-cultural impact of hosting large sporting events. While the blame for this cannot be laid solely at the feet of the spectator sports tourist, their mere presence at the event breeds antagonism with the 'home' team. This environment at a sporting event combined with excitement, alcohol and tension often results in violent behaviour, which hurts the spectators, the sport and the image of the destination. A similar impact (in the sense that it borders on criminal activity) is that of sport gambling. Those who are anti-gambling argue that the practice does nothing to aid societal development as the poor inevitably suffer more,

by gambling and in most cases losing more, than their wealthier counterparts (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 218).

The fifth negative impact to be mentioned is that of commercialization of sport. Indeed the sport industry has emerged, in the last twenty years, as an extremely lucrative one, mainly due to the omnipotent presence of sponsors. In every sport broadcast, be it on the radio or the television, in every match or race or team, a sponsor or sponsors are mentioned. Corporations have found that this is one of the best and most effective ways of reaching their target market, consequently the world's largest companies have jumped onto the sport sponsorship bandwagon (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 221).

At the very heart, sports tourism is still tourism and the age-old negativities associated with tourism apply to this niche market too. These include prostitution and crime. Regarding prostitution, a large, publicised sporting event could lend itself to the mercy of this 'industry' where the knowledge that a destination is filled with visitors who are either spectators or participants of a certain sporting event, will cause sex workers to showcase themselves in attempts to earn money (Sharpley, 1999: 295). Subsequently, they contribute to the spread of HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases. Similarly, criminals suddenly have a host of unsuspecting targets when these events are held.

## **8. The South African sports industry**

Having been under the rule of an Apartheid system for several decades and under a similar colonial rule for centuries, it is understandable that South Africa, as a country is still experiencing its legacy of racism and that this legacy creeps into all aspects of South African life, including sports.

### **8.1 The current state of sport in South Africa**

In 1992, Roberts stated that the "sports struggle" was far from over. Twelve years later, the struggle continues and is perhaps more prominent than ever before, highlighted by the recent inquiry into racism in rugby.

It is felt though, that issues such as this inquiry, while very relevant and obviously needing resolution overshadow the issue of sport. Sport should be a reprieve from



societal pressures and politics; instead it continues to be plagued by these very things. However, one cannot escape the fact that in the past sport was deemed a privilege to the oppressed majority whereas it should have been a right, thus creating an unjust, unequal system (Roberts, 1992) and giving rise to the situation that faces South Africa today. When examining the three major sports in the country namely, rugby, soccer and cricket, and its spectators, it is clear that rugby spectators are predominantly Afrikaners, cricket spectators are predominantly English-speaking white South Africans, while soccer is most popular among black South Africans.

Furthermore, Roberts states that the task of now creating a sporting system that is equitable and integrative of all groupings is indeed a colossal one (1992), thus it can be discerned that achieving this will take some time. Adding to the sheer magnitude of the task is the fact that those involved in its actual achievement are people who formerly regarded each other as adversaries but are now forced to join forces and co-operate in the interests of the sport for which they share a passion (Roberts, 1992).

Since unification it has become apparent that the Black population's participation in sport has been on the increase, this is particularly true of sports that do not require the use of "sophisticated" and therefore expensive equipment (Roberts, 1992). Their participation has increased in sports such as road running, soccer, boxing, netball and karate (Roberts, 1992). Very few sports do not require the use of some sort of equipment therefore, it is implied by this observation that most sports in South Africa are still dominated by the White population who can afford to be participants.

However, Roberts makes an interesting point when stating that development in the sense of South African sport means changing the balance of power in favour of those previously oppressed (1992). This statement could perhaps lead to the conclusion that sport in this country is being controlled to a great extent by the government. However, one has to bear in mind the fact that the Apartheid government made the decision to dissolve the sporting ministry in 1983, therefore, the new government had to, largely, start from scratch when this ministry was reinstituted in 1994 (Boshoff, 1997). This is in terms of finding their role in South African sport, the degree to which they should be involved as well as fulfilling the task of creating racial equity.

Sport has always been an important part of South African society, even during the years when certain groups were denied access to sport at certain levels. The government recognized this which is why they reinstituted this ministry. Indeed, sport is a powerful medium and its power is evident in the experience of the Rugby World Cup victory in 1995 where the entire nation, even the Black population cheered a team consisting 99% of white players (Boshoff, 1997). In its purest form, sport is a social service delivering on two fronts, firstly delivering a human service whereby it promotes physical and psychological human development and secondly, it delivers entertainment to the multitudes that watch it (Boshoff, 1997). However, because of the overwhelming and overshadowing past of South Africa, sport is seldom seen in this form.

Since unification, as the changes in the country occurred sport seemingly went from strength to strength. The most popular sports in the country namely rugby, cricket and soccer, were at the forefront of this 'strengthening' but this soon changed as the country experienced the rollercoaster of sport in South Africa. Proudly it watched as a new national cricket team made it to the semi-final of their first World Cup (1992); as it won its first Olympic medal in the 10 000m event (1992); a new rugby team established themselves as a force to be reckoned with in international rugby, eventually going on to win the World Cup (1995) and its soccer team established themselves as the best in Africa (1996). On two of these occasions the country could applaud itself too as it acted as hosts to the African Cup of Nations soccer tournament in 1996 and the Rugby World Cup in 1995. These successes were followed by more as the country's athletes continued to improve winning more medals and tournaments.

While many South Africans' attitude towards sports have become negative in recent years, particularly towards major sports where teams represent the country or their respective provinces, sports that require individual involvement and achievement appear to be flourishing. An example of this is the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour which sold out its entries (which number approximately 38 000) for the 2004 race, in just three days, a record achievement for this event. Therefore, while the face of South African sport may be tainted, opportunities are still present for smaller events and less commercial and recognized sports to change this situation.

## 8.2 Sports tourism in South Africa

In 1997 the South African government became acquainted with the concept of Sports Tourism and established South African Sport Tourism (SAST), a collaborative initiative between the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) and the Ministry of Sport as well as the Parallel Media Group, a sports media and marketing company (White Paper, 1998).

Since then, the organisation has ceased to exist, the reason for this remains unclear, however its objectives and goals have been incorporated into the Sport and Recreation portfolio as well as the Tourism portfolio of the government departments<sup>6</sup>. It is identified in the following manner by the government:

*"One of the most exciting projects that SRSA has embarked upon is that of Sports Tourism in which we want to stake our claim with regard to job creation in this country. The project is founded on promoting "home grown" sports events such as the Comrades Marathon abroad, negotiating better tour packages for spectators who accompany sports teams visiting South Africa, intensifying our support for viable bids to host major international sports events in accordance with a national strategy, and marketing our sports facilities to countries abroad for out-of-season and recreational usage<sup>5</sup>."*

Since 1997 when SAST was established, the objectives remain the same. The reasons for establishing the organization include (White Paper, 1998) the following. Sporting events attract people to parts of the country that are not usually regarded as tourist attractions and are often overlooked by ordinary tourism promotional material e.g. Free State. Sport events (large-scale) generate a lot of global media exposure of which the host region inevitably benefits.

Sport sponsorship is extremely lucrative as many companies realize that sport presents a stage for them to advertise their products and a direct passage to their target markets.

The campaign objectives that they hope to achieve are as follows:

- To establish the country as a sports and recreation destination.
- To provide compelling reasons to visit and to make the country easily accessible in order to do so.

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<sup>6</sup> ([www.srsa.gov.za](http://www.srsa.gov.za))

- To build a competitive advantage from other sport and recreation destinations; and
- To build a 'Sports Tourism South Africa' brand that will last and create loyalty and motivate tourism in South Africa.

(Source: Department of Sport and Recreation White Paper, 1998)

Seven years after the establishment of SAST it can be said that many of these objectives have been achieved with the country having hosted international events such as the Cricket World Cup early in 2003. Furthermore, South Africa has truly established itself as one of the world's premier destinations and "the fastest growing tourism destination in the world" (The Citizen, 2003). Sport allows the country to build on this existing advantage through further establishing this niche market.

While the authorities should be commended for recognizing the potential of sport tourism as an important contributor to tourism income, it has become obviously evident, that a severe gap exists in research into the Sport Tourism Special Interest Market. Research has been conducted in overseas countries and this is often modelled on events varying in size and stature. There is a dearth of similar research done on major sporting events in South Africa, possibly due to the hindered development of this industry in South Africa.

This research aims to close that gap somewhat by providing an insight into the sport tourist as a market segment. Research will focus on the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour and it can be argued that cyclists would form their own unique subculture with distinctly different characteristics, and similarly each sporting subculture will possess its own characteristics unique to that sport. However, this research will form the basis and effectively lay the foundation for future research in the sporting industry that will ultimately aid the development of the industry in South Africa through enabling role players to provide a better service to the relevant parties.

## Methodology

The literature review examined the psychological make-up of sports tourists was detailed as well as the impacts of sports tourism, both socio-cultural and economic. It also defined 'tourism', 'sport' and 'sports tourism'. It also examined elements such as the destination and the event, as well as the relationship between the two. These elements include the relationship between the destination and the event as perceived by the sports tourist, and whether it is the destination or the event that is the over-riding decision-maker for the individual.

Furthermore, the literature lacks an in-depth explanation of who the sports tourist is, and how they relate to the existing typologies of tourists i.e. whether they can be grouped into one of these leisure tourist typologies or whether their characteristics differ to such a degree that they require their own typology. This research study also had several event-specific objectives to satisfy in terms of the sports media consumed by the sample, the economic impacts of the event and the perceptions, of these event participants, of the destination city.

### 1. Study Setting

Sports Tourism is a sub-segment and sub-industry of tourism as a whole. The tourism industry in South Africa has grown to become one of the most important industries in economic terms with the SA Travel & Tourism economy contributing 7.3% to the Gross National Product in 2003<sup>7</sup>.

The unique features of this industry is that the reason for travel is a lot more apparent and yet at the same time, a lot more indistinguishable. While many inferences can be drawn and assumptions made about these travel motivations, only empirical research can illuminate our understanding thereof. While much can be said about the destination and impacts of these sporting events, the sports tourist remains somewhat elusive.

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<sup>7</sup> [www.wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)

While existing research in the field of Sports Tourism is substantial, it is concentrated in the more developed parts of the world such as the United States, Australia and European countries. As the destination can be deemed as one of the three most important elements of sports tourism (the other two being the tourist and the actual sport being played), it can be inferred that if one of those three changes, the entire study and its findings will change. As it currently stands, sports tourism is a relatively new phenomenon in South Africa, having only been recognised as an industry by the government in 1996 when it established South African Sports Tourism (SAST) (White Paper, 1998). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, neither South Africans as sport tourists, nor foreigners visiting the country as sport tourists, have been researched in any capacity in this country. This despite the fact that the country is home to some of the world's premier sporting events such as the Comrade's Marathon and the event in question i.e. the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour.

The research area of sports tourism has not received much attention in South Africa and this particular study is thus contributing to the subject area of Sports Tourism in an otherwise oblivious country. The industry is of great importance in South Africa as a niche market of the tourism industry, with valuable economic benefits for the country. Therefore, further knowledge and understanding of the industry and its players, will expand on the existing benefits and create a better understanding of the consumer behaviour of the sports tourist.

The study primarily seeks to determine what motivates sports tourists in their decision to travel to destinations, in order to participate in sporting events. In addition, to determine participants' perceptions of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour destination and whether it is the destination or the event, which is the more important decider for sports tourists.

## **2. Instrumentation**

The primary research tool of investigation was a self-administered questionnaire (refer to Appendix B). The survey followed the general funnel approach and was modelled on the same sequence as that of the literature review. It examined several broad fields that were grouped into the following categories: -

- Section 1: Knowledge of the event

- Section 2: Sporting interests
- Section 3: Motivating factors
- Section 4: Tourism Activities
- Section 5: Destination Perceptions
- Section 6: Socio-cultural factors
- Section 7: Demographic Information

#### *Section 1: Knowledge of the event*

This section attempted to identify how successful the current marketing campaign of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour was as well as to identify which form of media or communication had been most influential and successful in informing participants of the event.

This section of the survey seeks to determine the following:

- Whether or not it was the first time that the individual had participated in the event.
- The number of times that those who have participated previously, have done so.
- The medium through which they initially became aware of the event; and
- The published material, both electronic and printed, that pertains to cycling, that participants subscribe to regularly.

The independent variables affected were the "First time participating", "Source of Information" and "Regular communication subscribed to" variables.

#### *Section 2: Sporting Interests*

This section obtains information on the following:

- The regularity with which the participants engage in cycling;
- Whether or not they participate in similar sporting events at a similar level of competition;
- Their perceptions of themselves as cyclists; and
- Which other sporting activities they engage in regularly.

This section aims to discern whether or not there are any complementary sports to cycling that stand out above all others and whether or not cycling stands apart as a

sport of interest. In addition it also aims to determine how important an aspect of their lives cycling is and in fact, whether sport in general is important to them.

The independent variables include "The regularity of cycling", "Participation in similar events" and "Other sports participated in".

### *Section 3: Motivating factors*

This section of the survey determines information on the following:

- (a) The participants' reasons for entering the event;
- (b) Whether they entered individually or as part of a team;
- (c) The importance of the "team" aspect for those who did not enter individually;
- (d) The importance of cycling in their lives; and
- (e) Whether or not the destination in which an event is held, is of any importance.

The motivating factors ultimately aim to uncover any latent and obvious reasons why participants choose to enter this event. The most obvious of these, such as the social benefits of belonging to a team are also examined and tested. These motivations were arrived at after examining the push and pull factors of event tourism as identified by several authors (Kim & Chalip, 2003: 695; Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002: 47-48; Getz & Cheynne, 1997 and Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2003). The concept of sports tourism is scrutinized even further in this section as the research aims to distinguish whether or not the place that the event is held in bears on the participants' decision-making at all.

The independent variables affected in this section are "Reasons for participation", "whether they entered as a team or not" and "the importance of cycling in their lives". The dependent variables are "Whether they would still have entered if not for the team or friends" and "the likelihood of travel to participate".

### *Section 4: Tourism activities enjoyed*

The basis of this research is tourism with a special interest in the niche market of sports tourism. As the basis this component of the research is indeed an important one. One of the objectives of the study is to identify whether sports tourists differ from leisure tourists or whether they can be grouped into the existing leisure typologies. The activities that they enjoy will aid in distinguishing the sports tourist between these two groups, as well as give a rough indication of the extent of the economic impact that



they exert on the Western Cape economy. Smith & Jenner (1998: 81) found that pre- and post-event stays also added significantly to the economic benefit of an event, therefore this aspect was also measured in this section. Consequently, measuring their activities and expenditure as tourists, will aid in ascertaining the differences, if any, between sports tourists and leisure tourists, as well as what type of leisure tourist they are based on existing leisure tourist typologies.

The information obtained from this section of the survey seeks to obtain the following information:

- (a) The total duration of stay in Cape Town of participants;
- (b) The main intermediary used by participants to make travel arrangements;
- (c) The means of transport used to travel to Cape Town and to other events.
- (d) The type of accommodation used by respondents;
- (e) The leisure activities engaged in before the event;
- (f) The leisure activities engaged in after the event;
- (g) The economic expenditure of participants on food, transport, accommodation, goods and services purchased at the Lifestyle Expo, cycling equipment, tourist attractions and entertainment.

The independent variables in this section are as follows: "number of nights spent in Cape Town", "travel arrangements", "means of transport", "type of accommodation", "activities engaged in before the event" and "activities engaged in after the event". The variable which measures what was spent is dependent on the activities engaged in before and after the event.

#### *Section 5: Destination Perceptions*

This section of the survey aims to determine the following information:

- (a) Whether or not the participants would have entered had the event been held elsewhere;
- (b) Whether or not the participants would have visited Cape Town at the time of the event, had it not been for the cycle tour;
- (c) The participants' perceptions of Cape Town regarding several socio-cultural factors and whether this differs for previous participants;
- (d) The participants' perceptions of the race in terms of organisation etc.; and
- (e) Whether or not they would participate again in the future.

The independent variables affected are: "whether they would still have entered the event" and "whether they would still have visited Cape Town".

#### *Section 6: Socio-Demographics*

Finally, this section aims to establish a socio-demographic profile of Cycle Tour participants who responded to the survey, measured according to the following variables:

- (a) Nationality
- (b) Permanent place of residence
- (c) Gender
- (d) Age
- (e) Career

Each of the above are independent variables namely "Nationality", "Permanent place of residence", "Gender", "Age" and "Career".

### **3. Pre-testing**

Pre-testing, as defined by Aaker, Kumar & Day (1999: 323) is conducted in order to ensure that the questionnaire will successfully obtain the information that is needed by the researcher by identifying ambiguities, loaded or double-barrelled questions. In terms of the research method used for this study, pre-testing was also necessary to ensure that technically, the survey worked and was user-friendly. The six reasons highlighted as those which would necessitate pre-testing are Variation, Meaning, Task Difficulty, Respondent Interest and Attention, the Flow of the Questionnaire, Skip Patterns and length (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 1999: 324). The pre-testing process for this particular study was mainly for the purpose of:

- *Task Difficulty* - in terms of the level of the technical knowledge required to access and complete the survey;
- *The Flow of the Survey* – referring to the succession of questions and whether they followed each other in a logical manner;
- *Skip patterns* – these are often a source of confusion for respondents who subsequently fail to complete the survey fully.

A sample of twenty was used to test the survey. This sample was relatively representative of the population sample. Because the respondents were unknown to the researcher, it was assumed that the level of technological knowledge varied within the sample therefore. In so doing, pre-testing allowed for the successful execution of the online survey. None of the test sample appeared to experience problems with completing the survey or with the manner in which it was presented to them.

The survey was also presented to the organisers of the event as well as experts in the field of sports tourism and event management. All three parties suggested minor changes to the survey, predominantly in terms of the order of questions as well as those questions that would distinguish ex-patriots from true international participants. After making these minor changes, the survey was deemed fit for distribution.

#### **4. Determining the sample & sampling procedure**

There are several steps to be followed when determining the sample to be surveyed. These are as follows.

- 4.1 Defining the population
- 4.2 Determining the sampling frame
- 4.3 Selecting sampling techniques
- 4.4 Determining the sample size
- 4.5 Timing

Each of these headings will now be discussed in greater detail.

##### **4.1 Defining the population**

The target population is defined as all the elements that possess a common characteristic necessary for the research, as defined by the research problem (Malhotra, 1994: 352). Martins, Loubser & Van Wyk (1996: 252) highlight an important factor when noting that sample frame lists are seldom complete. Therefore the survey population often differs from the entire population because missing elements must also be accounted for within the survey population.

In this instance, the population can be defined as all cyclists who participated in the 2004 Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour. The criteria along which the sample is determined namely element, time and size are therefore fulfilled in this definition. The

element is the cyclist, the time is 2004 and the size refers to the geographical spread of these cyclists who geographically span five continents and represent 49 countries of the world.

#### **4.2 Determining the Sample Frame**

The sampling frame does not and need not include all members of a population (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2004: 376). Martins, Loubser & Van Wyk (1996: 252) list several requirements of a good sampling frame. These are:

- i. It should *represent* all elements of a population;
- ii. It should not duplicate any elements; and
- iii. It should not contain foreign elements.

It can reasonably be inferred that while the sample need not contain all the elements, it should still be representative of all the elements in terms of demographics and other element specifications.

A complete list or sample frame seldom exists, however this can be countered by allowing for treatment of a sampling frame error (Malhotra, 1994: 353). This is done by screening respondents beforehand and thus ensuring that they belong as members of the population and that they meet the research criteria. The organisers of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour hold a database of all the cyclists (37 811) who enter the 2004 event. However, only 1 697 members of the 2004 database are international participants and thus qualify for inclusion in the study. The actual sample frame therefore consists of 1 697 elements. As part of the entry process up until 2004, participants had to enter certain information about themselves including their nationality, physical and e-mail addresses. This database is drawn from entries into the event and because individuals cannot enter twice, it can be said that the sample frame (database) is complete and contains no duplication or foreign elements.

#### **4.3 Selecting a sampling technique**

Probability sampling has several advantages over non-probability sampling, which makes it the favoured choice between the two and the one generally used by researchers. These advantages of probability sampling, as stated by Aaker, Kumar & Day (2004: 380) are that it allows for the representative nature of the sample to be illustrated better due to the increased randomness of the sample. Secondly, due to the fact that a sample is used over a census, the variance within the sample can be

pin-pointed more specifically. Thirdly, the randomness of the sample allows for biases to be identified faster and more easily.

Randomness in the choosing of sample elements ultimately improves the quality of the sample because it reduces bias. In this instance, 1 164 members of the sample frame (69%) had e-mail addresses which could be used for communication purposes. Each of these members received a survey therefore each element had an equal probability of being selected as part of the sample. No element within the sample frame was deliberately excluded from the sample by the researcher. The reason for this is the small size of the sample frame. In anticipation of a low response rate, it was decided to approach the entire sample frame instead of selecting a smaller number. In order to improve the quality of the research, this method of sampling was chosen.

#### **4.4 Determining the Sample Size**

Aaker, Kumar & Day (2004: 404) identify four factors on which the sample size is dependent. Namely:

- The number of groups and sub-groups to be sampled within the study;
- The value of the information sought;
- The cost of the sample and
- The variability of the information.

International participants in the event already exist as a subgroup within the larger category of participants in the 2004 event. A further sub-group within the sample frame would be returning participants vs. first-time participants. Furthermore, the information sought is potentially of great value to the event organisers who hope to improve their current international marketing campaign through insightful research findings which could attract more international cyclists (sports tourists) to the event and to Cape Town.

In terms of the last two factors, the monetary cost to the researcher has been minimal due to the generosity of the event organisers who have sponsored the distribution of the surveys as well as hosted it technically on their website server. However, the cost in terms of resources invested is far greater. In terms of variability, it is unknown and will undoubtedly differ between the above-mentioned groups, perhaps between participants from different destinations as well, due to differing perceptions of the

destination among people from different countries and across different cultures. Further attempts were made to minimise variability through the use of closed-ended questions. The only open-ended questions were those where respondents specified 'other' answers that were not included in the pre-defined list as well as the number of nights that they stayed and their nationalities, questions for which predefined answer lists would be too vast.

As stated above, surveys were distributed to the entire sampling frame of 1 164 participants in anticipation of a low response rate. Studies report responses to e-mail as varying between 1% and 58%. Consequently, the expected response rates were completely unpredictable.

#### **4.5 Timing**

The 2004 event took place in Cape Town on Sunday, the 14<sup>th</sup> of March. Originally, surveys were to be distributed approximately two weeks after the event as this was anticipated as being the time when participants would return home. This estimation was arrived at under the assumption that participants would remain in the city or country after the event for vacation purposes. Due to the unavailability of resources, the survey could not be completed in time to meet this deadline. E-mails that contained the hyperlink to the survey on the Cycle Tour website were subsequently distributed on the 21<sup>st</sup> of May.

Recipients were given one month in which to respond and all responses arriving after 17:00 on the 21<sup>st</sup> of June were not accepted – subsequently no responses were received after this date. Time deadlines were adhered to as strictly as possible due to the fact that, if surveys were to be received too long after the event, it was feared that respondents' recollections of the event may not be accurate.

### **5. Data Collection**

As the organisers' primary method of communication is e-mail only, it was decided to collect the data using the same method. E-mail was chosen as opposed to mail surveys due to its cost effective nature and immediacy of response as compared to postal surveys. However, many considerations were taken into account when evaluating e-mail as a method of collecting data as it also has many drawbacks, particularly in terms of its legitimacy as a research tool.

### 5.1 E-mail surveys as a research tool

The Internet has reached different levels of advancement in different parts of the world. First-world countries are more likely to have the advantages of free or cheaper Internet access as well as greater bandwidth capacity thereby allowing for a faster, more efficient connection to the World Wide Web. The fact that the number of Internet users doubles each year (Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001) implies that each year a larger percentage of the population becomes part of the total online population able to be surveyed. The number of Internet users worldwide was estimated at approximately 690 million in September 2003<sup>8</sup>. Therefore, the use of these web-based techniques of surveying is ever-increasing.

In this situation, 46 % of the sample frame hails from African countries. In these less-developed countries, the Internet facilities are often not as efficient, fast or accessible as in the developed countries which have the advantage of having had the infrastructure in place for a lot longer therefore having reached scales of efficiency for this medium far sooner. This is to the extent that in the United States for example, Web users do not pay for e-mail or Internet access (Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001). This allows them to spend more time on the Internet developing their Internet skills.

### 5.2 Method

There are several different ways in which online research can be carried out (Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002). Surveys can be conducted via e-mail where the actual survey is in the body of the e-mail. Alternatively, they can be posted on a website and made available for completion by any visitor to that website i.e. there is no control over the identity of the sample. Another manner of conducting online research is by posting surveys on the Internet (on a website) and distributing the URL (website address) to the sample, directing them to it by including a hyperlink to the online survey in the body of the e-mail.

Ilieva, Baron & Healey (2002) are of the opinion that web surveys are new *modes* of data collection rather than new *methods* of data collection. In other words, the mode refers to the actual medium through which the information researched travels before reaching the database. The only real difference from traditional distribution arises in how the distribution takes place i.e. how the actual survey reaches its sample. Several factors must be

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<sup>8</sup> [www.nua.com](http://www.nua.com)

considered when choosing between the above-mentioned methods of distribution. Firstly, most e-mail accounts have a limited capacity as to the quantity of e-mails that it can hold. Furthermore, large e-mails take up large amounts of computer memory within these accounts. Therefore, large e-mails i.e. inclusive of the survey in the e-mail are not the preferred method of electronic distribution. Furthermore, recipients who have slow Internet connections will struggle to download large e-mails i.e. these will take a long time to download and become available for use.

Furthermore, e-mails that consist of the coded survey often also take a significantly longer time to download which could result in respondent frustration and ultimate abandoning of the survey (Interview 3). It was found that Kim & Chalip (2004: 698) utilised a sample population of 2200 e-mail addresses obtained from 43 soccer clubs within the USA. They proceeded to send an e-mail to each element within this sample frame containing a hyperlink to view the research survey online. One week later a follow up survey was distributed. They obtained a response rate of 25.3% (Kim & Chalip, 2004: 698). The method chosen for the purpose of the CAPPCT research followed that of Kim & Chalip closely. An e-mail consisting of a covering letter was sent to the respondents. The covering letter (Appendix A) explained the reason for the research and contained the link for respondents to click on which would direct them to the actual HTML (Hypertext Markup Language) coded survey. The survey itself was hosted on the same server as the official Cycle Tour website, however, it was not visible or accessible to ordinary visitors to the site because the link to the survey did not appear on the user interface of the website, thus making it accessible only to those who received the e-mail and could access it via the hyperlink.

In effect, respondents were being invited to visit the website and complete the survey. "Hiding" the survey on the website and distributing the link, allowed control to be maintained over who had access to the survey and would ultimately complete it and who not, whereas if it had just been posted on the website, it would have been available to anyone outside of the sample frame.

The physical design of the survey allowed respondents to click the checkboxes in order to select their answers (See Appendix C) and type answers to 'other' fields and open-ended questions in the text boxes provided. The survey was designed such that respondents only had to scroll down in order to view the rest of it and on completion click a 'Submit' button



which submitted the respondents' answers to the researcher. These answers were received in e-mail format and were then captured into a Microsoft Excel database.

### **5.3 Advantages and disadvantages of electronic surveys**

From the many research projects conducted, a conclusive list of advantages and disadvantages of e-mail as a mode of research was assembled. Many of these papers have commonalities in terms of the advantages and disadvantages. Some of the more generic advantages of *technology* (Ranchhod & Zhou, 2001) in research are that large sums of information can be transmitted in a shorter period of time; technology allows for a greater degree of interaction between the researcher and the respondent; and surveys can be designed specifically for the relevant target population. However, e-mail surveys in particular, have far more specific advantages and disadvantages.

#### **5.3.1 Advantages of E-mail Surveys**

An extensive review of research into e-mail surveys was conducted with vast positive and negative findings. Numerous positive findings were reiterated by several authors. It was found (Wilson & Laskey, 2003; McDonald & Adam, 2003; Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998; Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002) that the administrative function involved with posting surveys and receiving paper responses is removed when conducting research via e-mail. The function of capturing the data is also removed thereby decreasing the room for error and data can be captured instantaneously (Wilson & Laskey, 2003). In addition, the set-up and distribution costs are lower compared to postal research, when the sample is larger than 500. Response rates to these surveys are also generally faster due to the immediacy of the medium and the quality of responses is generally better i.e. questions are answered more fully and accurately and open-ended answers are longer than in postal surveys -this is also referred to as a lower respondent error (Wilson & Laskey, 2003; McDonald & Adam, 2003; Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998; Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002).

Other advantages include the flexibility of non-responses which are presented as bounceback e-mails (non-responses) - these allow the researcher to reselect a sample with which to replace those that did not respond thereby increasing the accuracy of the response rate (Wilson & Laskey, 2003). Furthermore, e-mail surveys allow for far greater potential to activate the senses through the use of colour, graphics and sound (McDonald & Adam, 2003). In addition, the entire process is quickened due to several

processes being made shorter (Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998) and any possibility of interviewer bias that might occur through telephone surveys or interviewer-administered surveys is removed (Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998 and Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002). Finally, e-mail surveys are able to reach respondents who reside in very remote areas (Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu, 2003).

### **5.3.2 Disadvantages of E-mail Surveys**

According to Ranchhod & Zhou (2001) the knowledge and characteristics of the e-mail users presents its own set of disadvantages. For example, e-mail users could filter their mail so as to block those from unknown addresses, which would mean that the intended recipient would never receive the e-mail. Usage patterns also differ from user to user i.e. how regularly they check their e-mail, the extent to which they use their e-mail accounts (receive only or to send as well), therefore receipt during the necessary period is not guaranteed. It is also difficult to attach tangible incentives for respondents who take part in an e-mail survey compared to including a voucher for example, in postal mail. Furthermore, Internet access points are not the same the worldover and different applications (e.g. monitor sizes, software packages etc.) imply different views of the survey and/or web page.

Ranchhod & Zhou (2001) also found that e-mail removes the element of anonymity that would otherwise 'protect' respondents and encourage more honest answers and that the completion of certain surveys may require a more advanced knowledge of the Internet and general advanced technical skills not otherwise possessed by the common user. These findings were further reiterated by Dillman & Bowker (1998) who also suggested that coverage error could become a problem because there is no place in the world yet, where the majority of the population has Internet access. In addition, respondents can become frustrated with very complicated surveys and neglect to complete it entirely or fully as a result thereof. Frustration could also result (Dillman & Bowker, 1998) if the format of the survey does not display all the questions because respondents will never know how close to completion they are.

While an entire population can have physical addresses, no population in its entirety will have e-mail addresses which could result in a sampling error (Ilieva, Baron & Healey, 2002 and Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001). Ilieva, Baron & Healey (2002) also found that certain surveys could take a long time to download and impatient respondents

might then choose to quit the program and not complete the survey. Furthermore, the number of non-deliverable e-mails resulting from e-mail surveys might be far higher due to the fact that people change e-mail addresses and Internet Service Providers (ISPs) far more regularly than they do physical addresses (Cobanoglu, Warde & Moreo, 2001).

## **6. Survey Design**

During design of the survey extensive research was undertaken and decisions regarding this design were made in accordance with the disadvantages mentioned in the preceding chapter. As far as possible, efforts were made to limit these negativities and consequently to maximise the number of responses.

The Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour event organisers are in regular contact with their database and the subject of their correspondence is relevant and important to the database. Therefore, they are accustomed to receiving e-mails from this source and as it is a known e-mail address to them, they were less likely to delete or filter these e-mails. Furthermore, the event organisers offered incentives to the value of R10 000 to 10 respondents for completing the survey and being "entered" into the draw. Cobanoglu & Cobanoglu (2003) examined several authors and found that the presence of incentives was found to increase response rates significantly. Respondents were made aware of these incentives in the covering letter which appeared in the body of the e-mail (Appendix A).

In terms of physical design of the survey, the designer made every effort to keep it as simple as possible because one cannot account for different applications and monitor settings throughout the database of recipients, which will ultimately result in a different view of the survey. Similarly, since all systems do not allow for e-mails of this capacity, a text e-mail was sent and a hyperlink to the survey was provided within it, instead of embedding an HTML survey within the e-mail. In terms of the usage patterns of the database, this again is an aspect that is out of the researcher's control however, the fact that correspondence is regular and that 100% of the database preferred correspondence via e-mail it is a favourable implication for regular usage patterns.

No advanced technical knowledge was required in order to complete the survey. In answering questions, recipients only had to click on the option they selected and at most, type the answers to open-ended questions into free text fields. Questions were worded as simply as possible and the presence of ambiguity was tested thoroughly during the pre-testing phase of the research. The researcher also attempted to eliminate unnecessary frustration by designing the survey such that recipients could scroll down and easily establish how close they were to completion of the survey.

## 7. Study Limitations

The nature of the study and the mode of conducting research presented several limitations.

1. The database, albeit recent, cannot determine how many e-mail addresses had changed or become invalid between when the database was compiled and when the surveys were distributed. These e-mail addresses would not have registered as bounce back e-mails and would thus have been difficult to determine. It is assumed that the rate at which e-mail addresses change is relatively fast and indeterminate therefore, this presents an unknown limitation.
2. Surveys were only sent to those participants who were on the database for the 2004 event. Since these databases are replenished each year, it is not known if participants from former years would have responded differently.
3. The event in 2004 saw the re-opening of Chapman's Peak as part of the Cycle Tour for the first time since 2000, which created a great deal of excitement among cyclists. This coupled with the fact that Chapman's Peak had to close temporarily during the 2004 event due to a rockfall, could have influenced responses somewhat. Some respondents may have been disappointed or disgruntled by this occurrence after the initial excitement about its reopening.
4. The fact that incentives were on offer may have encouraged responses but it may also have encouraged respondents to supply positive answers yet not necessarily honestly, in the hope of being awarded a prize.
5. Another limitation exists in the proportion of ex-patriot South Africans within the database, as their knowledge and experience of the country and event could have skewed the research.

6. The sample of international participants is relatively small in comparison to the entire database of participants. Therefore it is not known how international participants would have compared to the domestic participants.
7. It was determined that the survey be distributed more than two weeks after the event but not more than three months after the event. This period was determined so that the event would still be fresh in the minds of respondents, and when they would be well-rested and recovered from the event.

## **8. Data Analysis**

Completed surveys were collated into a database in the statistical analysis software package Statistica. This database was then subjected to statistical tests that would aid in accepting or rejecting the research hypotheses, within statistical limits. Descriptive and basic statistics such as means, frequency counts and cross-tabulations were conducted. Where possible more advanced multivariate techniques (such as Correspondence Analyses, Factor Analyses, Discriminant Analyses) were used to interpret the data.

In summary, 1 167 surveys were distributed and 350 responses were received yielding a response rate of 30%. Out of the 350 responses received, 313 (89.4%) were complete and could be included in the database. The balance of 37 surveys was incomplete or duplicates from the same respondent and was thus eliminated from the survey.

The following section will examine the findings of the research. These findings seek to satisfy the research objectives as stated at the outset of the research.

# Findings

Surveys were distributed to a sample population of 1 167. Three hundred and fifty responses were received of which 313 constituted the final sample. These responses were then collated into a database upon which statistical tests were conducted. The results were as follows.

## 1. Response patterns

In their research on the motivating factors of recreational soccer players to travel to Korea to view the 2002 FIFA World Cup, Kim & Chalip (2004: 698) obtained a list of 43 soccer clubs in the USA and distributed surveys via e-mail to the 2200 e-mail addresses obtained from this list, with a response rate of 25%. The research into the CAPPCT saw 1 167 surveys distributed. Amongst the 350 responses that were received, 37 surveys were discarded due to the surveys not being completed fully or the same respondent submitting their survey more than once. The response rate for this research was 30%. In addition to a relatively high overall response rate, the rate of receipt of surveys from the time that it was distributed also displayed phenomenal results.

Surveys were distributed on the 21<sup>st</sup> of May 2004 and responses were received immediately thereafter, thereby correlating with the literature which states that response rates of e-mailed surveys are generally faster (Wilson & Laskey, 2003; McDonald & Adam, 2003; Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998; Illieva, Baron & Healey, 2002). The following graph illustrates the wave of responses from the date of distribution. Most responses were received within the first week of the surveys being sent out. This response is supported further by the literature that suggested that e-mail surveys generate a faster response than postal surveys (Wilson & Laskey, 2003; McDonald & Adam, 2003; Dillman & Schaeffer, 1998; Illieva, Baron & Healey, 2002). Thereafter, the figures dwindled significantly and the responses that were received towards the end of the research were either incomplete or submissions from those who had already submitted their completed surveys.

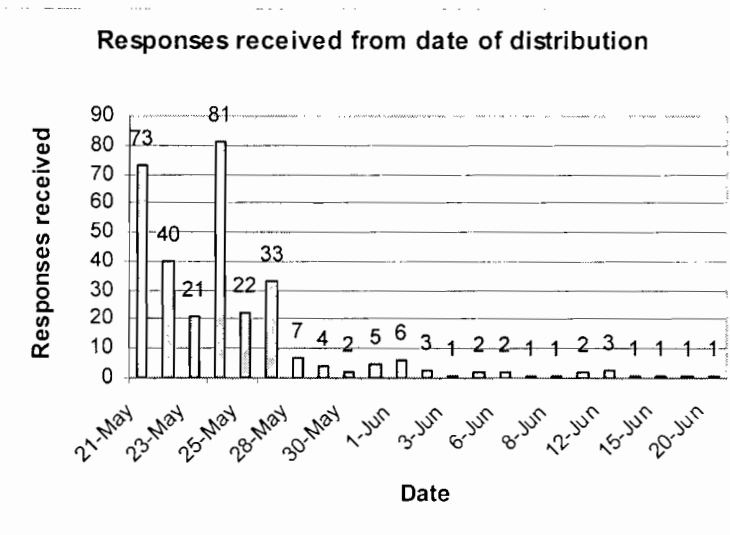


Figure 5: Frequency of responses from date of distribution

## 2. Demographic profile of respondents

In terms of the demographic profile, 84.4% of the sample was male and 15.6% was female indicating a heavy skew towards males within this sample group. The age profile was as follows: 73.2% were between the ages of 31 and 50 – consequently this is the most established age group and is likely to have the most buying power – 11.2% are between 51 and 60; and 9.2% were between the ages of 21 and 30. The 18-20 and over 70 categories each had 0.63% of the sample translating to two respondents each.

The respondents were also a fairly educated group as 60.4% of them occupy professional or managerial positions. Furthermore, 12.5% of respondents were self-employed and 10.5% were reportedly in middle management positions. The remaining categories of careers did not record anything more than 4% each, which was the sample for retired individuals.

Respondents were asked two questions to determine their nationality. Firstly, they were asked what their nationality was and secondly they were asked the country of their permanent residence. This was done to distinguish between South Africans living abroad and foreigners living in SA or other foreign countries other than their own. The most significant groups here in terms of nationality were Namibians (22.4%), British cyclists (17%), ex-patriot South African cyclists (16.6%) and German cyclists who made up 12.8% of this group. In terms of countries of residence, the results were rather

interesting with 25.2% indicating Namibia as their country of residence, 23.3% selected the figures mentioned above. United Kingdom and 33% selected 'Other' countries. These figures do not correlate to 'Other' countries stated are listed in the following graph. These countries were not listed on the survey as possible answers and were listed by respondents who selected the 'Other' option, when asked to specify.

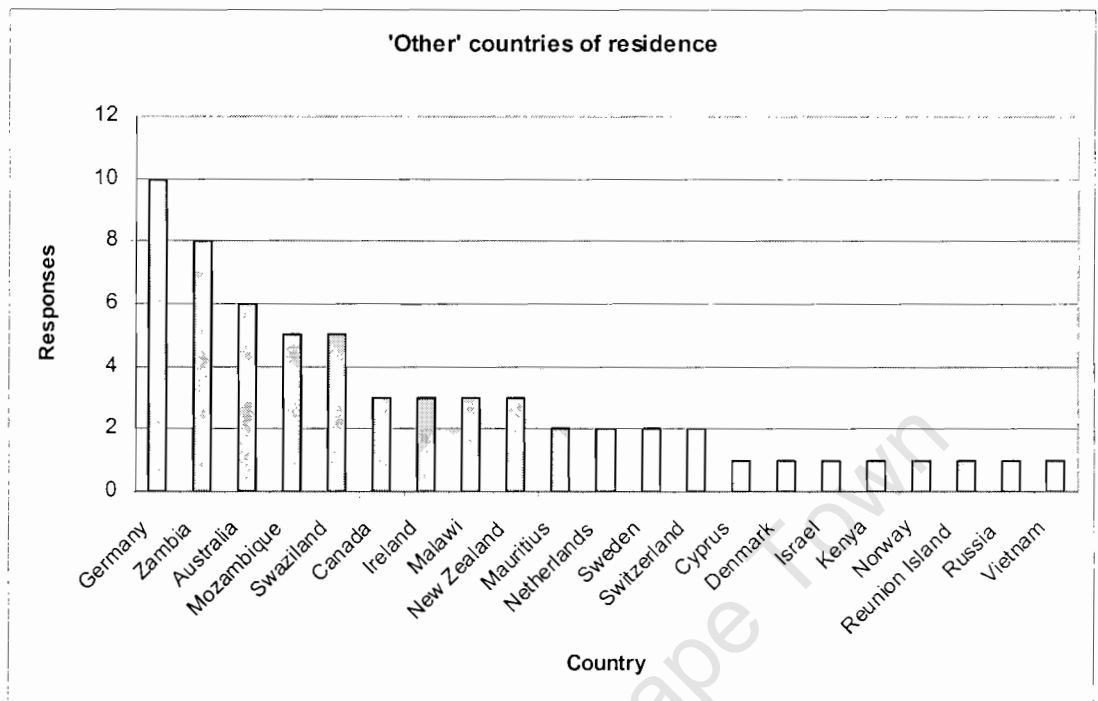


Figure 6: An illustration of countries listed in the 'other' category

### 3. Motivations

The literature review identified several intrinsic and extrinsic factors that affect the decision-making of consumers and particularly of those attending events. These motivations were examined further.

**H<sub>0</sub>: The social interaction gained from the event is the prominent motivating factor rather than cycling.**

This particular objective analyses two potential reasons for entry into the CAPPCT and seeks to determine which of the two is more important to cyclists in driving their entry. The results suggest that the very nature of the event is fun-loving and social while at the same time, being very individualistic and introspective as cyclists test their own mettle.



Gat & McWhirter (1998) found cycling to be an individual or solitary sport and that most cyclists are motivated by individual achievement – co-operation as required by being a member of a team would be a drawback for these cyclists. Therefore, this part of the study seeks to determine which of these two factors are more influential in the decision-making process.

The findings suggest that 55% of cyclists entered the event individually and 40.3% were individuals who entered with friends. Amongst this forty percent, 29.4% indicated that they definitely would have entered the event even if their friends had not; 8.9% were unsure about this fact. A further 6.4% said that they would not have entered if their friends had not entered, translating to 20 individuals. These figures appear in table 3.

	Count	Percentage
Yes	92	29.39%
No	20	6.39%
Not Sure	28	8.95%

Table 3: Frequency of responses had friends not entered

The majority of the sample was motivated by a strong desire to cycle as opposed to being motivated by their friends. The survey also measured the importance of cycling to respondents and their response to this question is illustrated in figure 7.

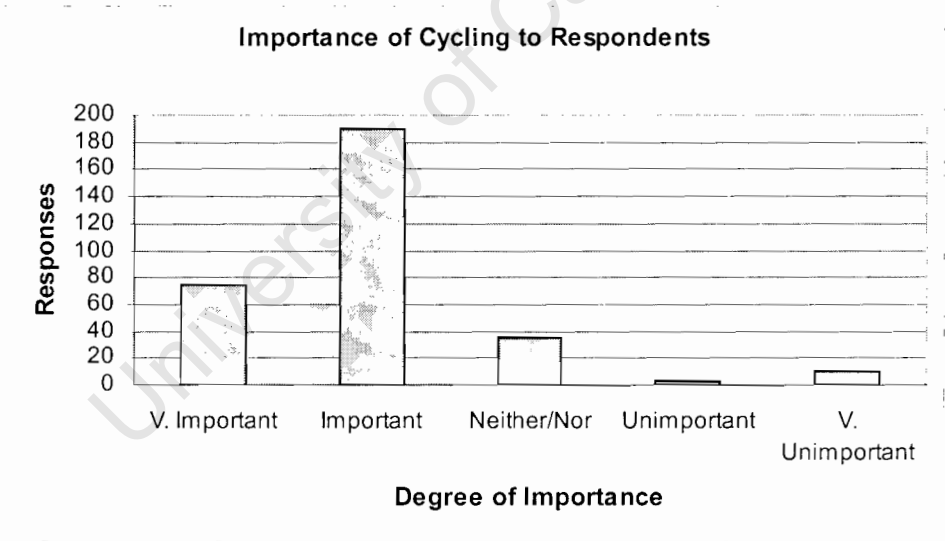


Figure 7: The importance of cycling to respondents

Figure 7 illustrates that cycling is an important aspect of the lives of respondents. Almost 61% of participants rated it as 'Important' with an additional 29.6% rating it as 'Very Important'. Over eleven percent of the sample was indifferent and only 4% of respondents rated cycling as either 'Unimportant' or 'Very Unimportant' in their lives. Thus cycling is the over-riding motivator rather than the social aspect of the event and the null hypothesis is thus rejected. In contrast, Green & Chalip (1998) found that tournaments or sporting events related to team sports provided an opportunity for participants from different circumstances to gather and share their common identity characteristics as being members of the same subculture.

**H<sub>0</sub>: The motivating factors of those who took part in the event prior to 2004 differ significantly from that of the first-time participants.**

In order to determine how many participants were participating in the event for the first-time, a frequency count was conducted, which asked whether or not the 2004 event was the first one in which they were participating. Sixty-five percent of respondents indicated that they had participated previously and 35% were participating for the first time. However, it cannot be assumed that this 35% of visitors were all visiting Cape Town for the first time as among them, there could be those who became aware of the event through previous visits to Cape Town.

This group of returning participants was broken down further to determine more or less how many times they had participated and thus, how many times they had visited the city of Cape Town before (although as stated above this is not necessarily the absolute figure). Results of the frequency count conducted appear in table 4.

	Count	Percentage
Once	48	15.33%
Twice	53	16.93%
3 Times	29	9.26%
4 Times	23	7.35%
5 Times	16	5.11%
6 Times	6	1.92%
> 6 Times	31	9.90%

Table 4: Frequency of participation in previous events among repeat participants

The results were fairly varied. Just fewer than 17% of repeat participants had participated twice before, 15% had participated once before. Just fewer than 10% had participated three times before and a similar percentage had participated more than six times. Generally, 65% of the sample respondents were very familiar with the event and with the destination and chose to return each year to participate in it. This is an indication of a great degree of loyalty to the event and possibly even to the destination, amongst this group. It also lends further weight to the success and recurrent economic benefit of the event.

Amongst the sample of 313 respondents, 35% were participating for the first time. The hypothesis was that the motivations to enter this event differ between the two groups and that those who had entered previously have more advanced reasons for entering. In order to ascertain whether this hypothesis would be accepted or rejected, a cross-tabulation was conducted between the main three reasons for entry and whether or not they were first-time or returning participants. The results appear in table 5.

	Reason 1		Reason 2		Reason 3	
	First-time participant	Returning participant	First-time participant	Returning participant	First-time participant	Returning participant
<b>Fitness</b>	17.3%	29.2%	15.6%	18.4%	23.5%	20.2%
<b>Prove</b>	14.6%	7.4%	20.2%	13.4%	11.1%	13.2%
<b>Challenge</b>	48.2%	37.6%	21.1%	39.8%	13.6%	15.5%
<b>Fun</b>	11.8%	18.8%	32.1%	21.9%	35.8%	40.3%
<b>To see CT</b>	Not rated	Not rated	1.8%	0.5%	1.2%	0%
<b>Friends</b>	6.4%	2.5%	8.3%	4%	12.4%	7%
<b>Other</b>	1.8%	4.5%	1%	2%	2.5%	3.9%

Table 5: Cross-tabulation between reason for participation and repeat or first-time participant

The cross-tabulation analysis compares the ratings of the three main reasons for participation between first-time participants in the event and returning participants. The proportions stated are the proportions of each group (the percentages stated by first-time participants are given as a percentage of the group of 110 respondents who were participating in the event for the first time). It was found that the order in which respondents ranked their reasons did not differ greatly between the two groups - there were no significantly outstanding reasons for entry from one group to another. The factor which was rated as reason 1 for both groups was 'Challenge', followed by 'Fitness'. In terms of Reason 2, 39% of returning participants selected 'Challenge' as their second reason whereas 32% of first-time participants selected 'Fun'. Both groups

selected 'Fun' and 'Fitness' for reason 3. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and no significant difference exists between the two groups.

**H<sub>b</sub>: Participants in the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour are fulfilling their lower level needs when doing so.**

The aim of this section is to determine which need it is (based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs) that the respondents were seeking to fulfil when participating in this event. To determine the answer to this question, respondents were asked how they rated themselves as cyclists (results are shown in table 6) assuming that more serious cyclists would be seeking to fulfil higher level needs. They were also asked to rate their three main reasons for participating where the options given aimed to cover the entire spectrum of needs within the hierarchy. Recreational cyclists as defined by Gat and McWhirter (1998) are "individuals who cycle on their own, with friends or in organised bicycle rides but who had not competed and were not participating in organised cycling competitions". The assumption here would be that recreational cyclists are less serious about the sport and that they would therefore rate cycling as less important than those respondents who are in the more 'serious' categories.

However, Hall (1992) distinguishes between "activity participants" and "players" where the latter group are drawn to a destination in order to compete in organised competitions while the former are drawn to a destination for leisure purposes. For "activity participants" participation will follow as an incidental activity. The CAPPCT requires participants to qualify for participation through taking part in other similar events therefore, all participants of this event can be categorised as "players". Frequency tests and cross-tabulations were then conducted on these variables within the database.

	Count	Percentage
Recreational	140	44.728
Amateur	155	49.521
Semi-professional	16	5.112
Professional	1	0.319

Table 6: Self-rating as cyclist

Table 6 shows that approximately 94% of respondents rated themselves as recreational (44.7%) and amateur (49.5%) cyclists. A further cross-tabulation was conducted to determine whether cyclists who rated cycling 'important' in their lives were generally the more serious cyclists (see table 7).

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very Unimportant
Recreational	20	93	24	0	3
Amateur	45	89	11	3	7
Semi-professional	9	7	0	0	0
Professional	1	0	0	0	0

Table 7: Cross tabulation between self-rating as cyclist and the importance of cycling

The differences between these four groups are not conclusive due to the small size of the semi-professional and professional categories. The majority of semi-professional cyclists did however rate cycling as "Very Important" although this figure is only marginally more than half of this group. Therefore, it cannot be proven that serious cyclists are more inclined to rate cycling more importantly in their lives compared to less serious cyclists.

Gat & McWhirter (1998) found that introversion was a characteristic found among professional cyclists whereas recreational cyclists are more likely to be attracted to the social aspect of cycling events and it was expected that these factors would be evident among the findings of CAPPCT participants as well. Therefore, a more significant indicator of needs asked the respondents' reasons for entering. As stated previously 'challenge' 'fitness' and 'fun' rated highly on the main reasons for entry, as well as on the lists of second and third most important reasons for entry. The order in which they were rated for each reason was the only characteristic to change (see table 8).

	Reason 1	Reason 2	Reason 3
Fitness	78	54	45
To prove to others that I can	31	49	26
I enjoy the challenge	129	103	1
For fun	51	79	1
To see Cape Town	0	3	1
My fiends encouraged me	12	17	19
Other	11	5	7

Table 8: Frequency ratings of 3 main reasons for participation

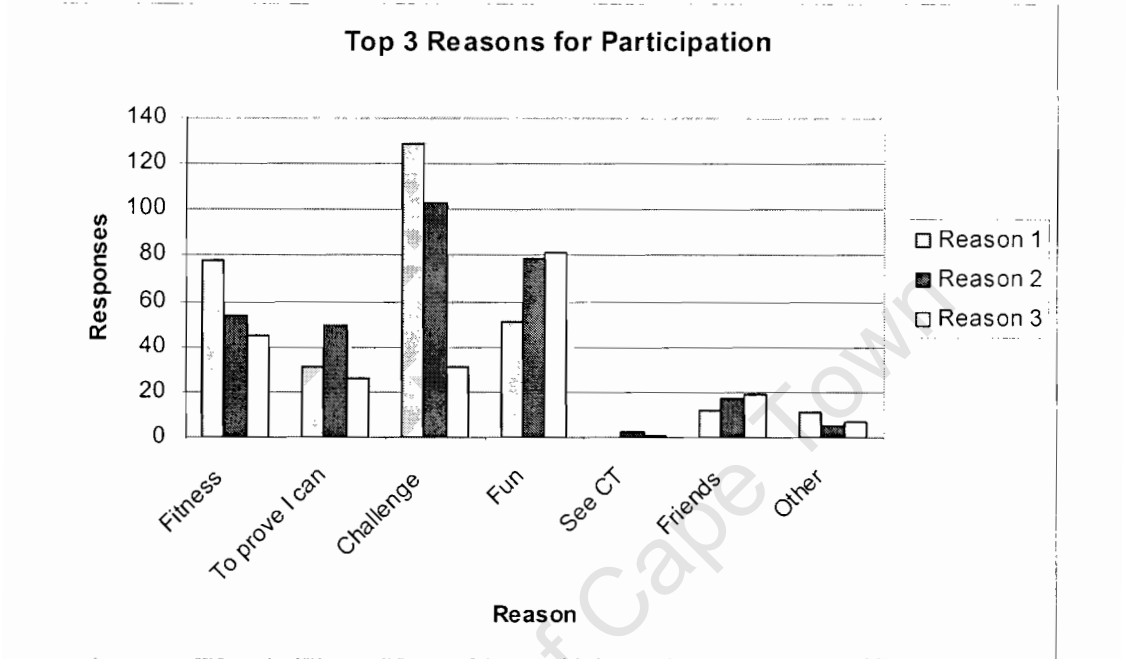


Figure 8: Ratings of first, second and third most important reasons for entering

Figure 8 illustrates how each of the options given as possible reasons for entering were rated, illustrating the comparison between the three choices for each variable. 'I enjoy the challenge' was rated as the most important reason and the second most important reason for entering. Forty-one percent of the sample chose 'challenge' as their number one reason for entering, 25% chose 'fitness' and 16% chose 'fun'.

For the second most important reason for entering, 33% chose 'challenge', 25% chose 'fun' and 17% chose 'fitness'. For the third-most important reason for entering, 26% chose 'fun' and 14% chose fitness. 32.9% of the sample neglected to select a third reason thereby skewing this outcome somewhat.

Nevertheless, the outcome is overwhelmingly in favour of the 'challenge' variable. By definition, a challenge means that one seeks to overcome an obstacle – overcoming in itself fulfils the need for self-actualisation that aims to deliver a sense of accomplishment to the participant. However, this is not the only need or level of need that is fulfilled. Fitness also features as one of the main reasons for entering, thus seeking to satisfy the lower level physiological need in Maslow's hierarchy. Interestingly, as a lower level need in the hierarchy it is a need which, according to the model, should be satisfied first. However, in this case, respondents rated their higher level needs before their lower level needs, thereby implying that their lower level needs are secondary as they have been fulfilled already (see table 9).

	Individual Entry	Team Entry	Individually but with friends
Reason 1: Fun	41.2%	11.7%	47%
Reason 2: Fun	64.5%	1.2%	34.2%
Reason 3: Fun	49.4%	2.5%	48.1%

Table 9: Cross tabulation between 'fun' reason and type of entry

In their research into the sporting subcultures of women football players, Green & Chalip (1998) found fun to be a common response when asked about motivations. However they found that fun did not explain anything as it is a feature of any voluntary leisure activity. The 'fun' reason could therefore have been defined as either social fun i.e. being a part of a group or team or the fun of the experience of the event and its atmosphere. The above table seeks to determine what type of fun is being alluded to by cross-tabulating the rating of 'fun' for each of the first, second and third reasons against the type of entry i.e. individual, team or individually but with friends.

Amongst those who selected 'fun' as their primary reason for entry, 47% entered individually but in a group of friends i.e. not an official club or team but socially connected. Forty-one percent of this group entered completely alone, and thus seek the fun of the experience. Amongst those who selected 'fun' as their second reason, 64.5% entered as individuals presumably seeking the latter type of fun and 34.2% were individuals that were connected socially. A split was found among those who selected 'fun' as their third reason for entering: 49.4% were individuals and 48.1% were socially connected individuals. Since only 14 respondents entered as teams, these responses are skewed.

In conclusion, the needs that respondents seek to fulfil through participation in the CAPPCT are self-actualisation needs through overcoming obstacles and engaging and accepting the challenge to participate; the need for fitness and physical health and thirdly, the need for 'fun'.

4. Relationship of participants with existing leisure tourist typologies

**Ho: Participants of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour cannot be grouped into any of the existing tourist typologies.**

Typologies that were developed after Cohen's (1972) typologies continue to mirror those which he created, namely explorers, drifters, individualised mass tourists and institutionalised mass tourists. Several questions in the survey were designed in order to uncover the inclination of participants towards any of these typologies. Respondents were asked how they made their travel arrangements, what type of accommodation they used, which activities they took part in and whether their participation in the event was in teams or individually. These measures would uncover some of their behavioural patterns as tourists.

As stated previously, 51.7% of respondents made their travel plans independently by booking online compared to 22.3% who booked through travel agents and 17.25% who booked telephonically. The majority trend is towards a more independent method of booking with less reliance on agents and operators (see table 10).

	Frequency	Percentage
Online (Independently)	162	51.8%
Travel Agent	70	22.4%
Tour Operator	5	1.6%
Cycling Club	6	1.9%
Telephone	54	17.3%
Fax	3	0.9%
Other	13	4.2%

Table 10: Frequency count of booking methods used by respondents

In terms of accommodation, 42.5% stayed with friends or family, 21.7% stayed in hotels, 15.6% stayed in guesthouses/ B&Bs and 15% rented holiday apartments. Three percent of respondents listed their accommodation as 'Other' however, they neglected to



specify what constituted this category. Similarly, with only one fifth choosing the option of a hotel, it becomes evident once again that most people prefer alternative accommodation facilities that provide freedom, flexibility and affordability. Again, the trend towards taking ownership of their vacations comes through strongly among respondents.

Participants were also asked about their pre- and post-event activities to further distinguish them between the typologies. The activity engaged in most was 'Visiting Friends & Relatives' (71.6%). Nearly 68% went sight-seeing, 42.5% visited tourist attractions and just less than half trained for the event. After the event, the same activities were highly rated although the percentages were lower and were far more evenly distributed among the activities. Overall, pre-event activities were less strenuous and more relaxing whereas post-event activity appeared to become more focused on entertainment as is illustrated in figure 9.

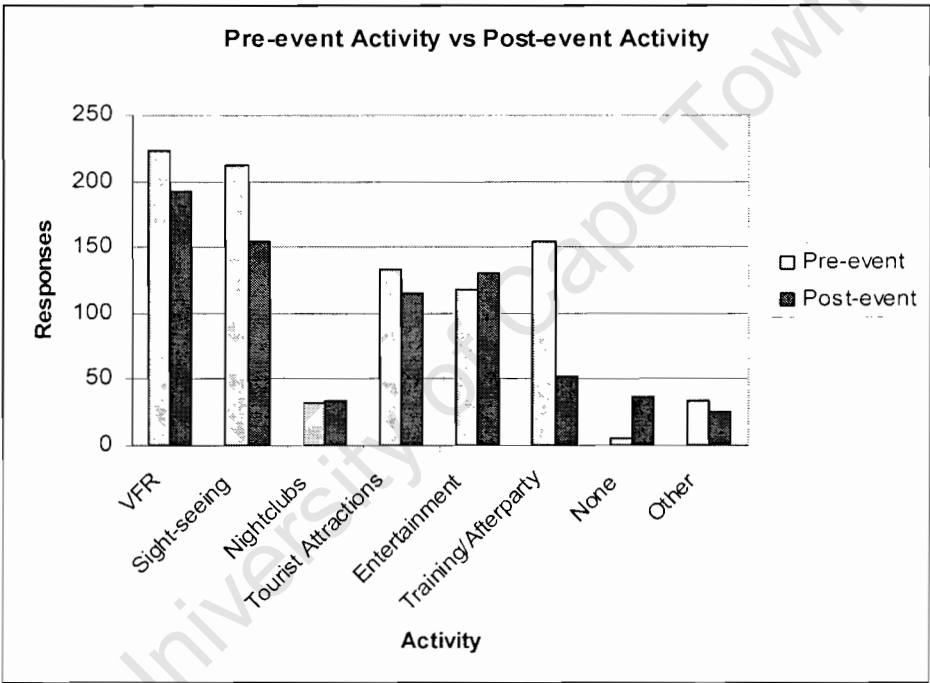


Figure 9: Pre-event activities compared with post-event activities

Finally, the question which asked respondents about their type of entry (individual or team) seeks to ascertain their tendency towards mass or individual travel. This result was somewhat mixed with 55.3% of respondents entering individually, 40.3% entering as an individual yet still with friends and a mere 4.5% entering as a member of a team. In

addition to the latter variable, it was determined that of all the above-mentioned variables that contributed to determining whether respondents were more inclined to one or the other end of the typology spectrum, the variable that measured how they made their travel arrangements was likely to have the greatest impact on the outcome. Therefore, a cross-tabulation was conducted between this variable and the type of entry variable in order to determine whether those who entered with friends or as a team were more likely to utilise travel agents or tour operators - traditionally frequented by mass tourists.

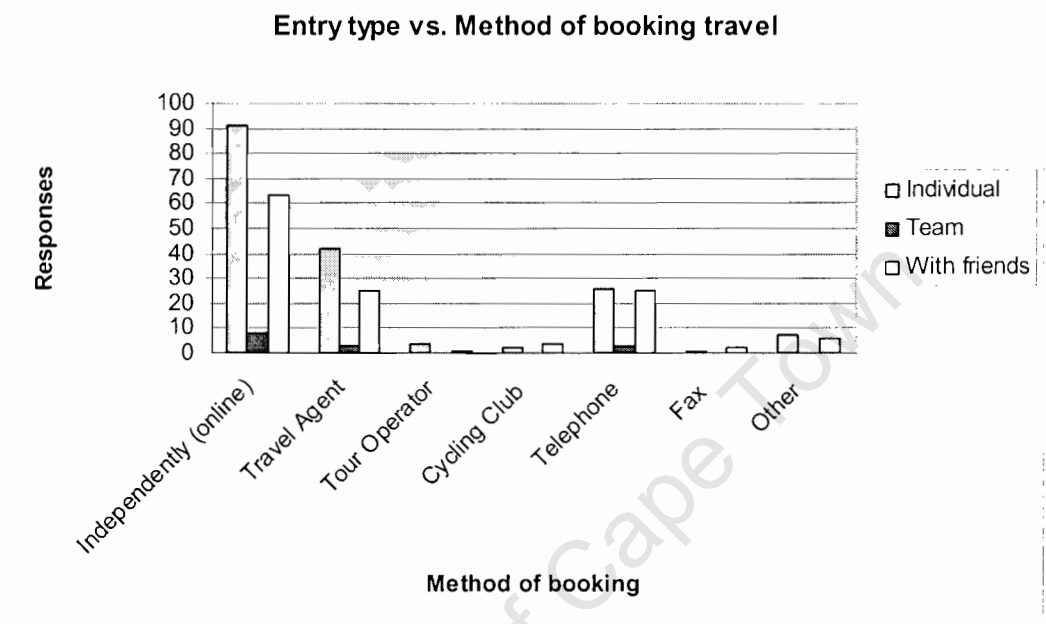


Figure 10: Cross-tabulation between entry type and travel booking method

Figure 10 shows that there is a definite trend among individual entries to make the travel arrangements independently, however this can also be said of those who entered with friends. A fairly significant amount of individual entries also chose to utilise the services of travel agents however there are no significant relationships that exist between any of these variables.

Overall, the trend amongst the respondents appears to be towards a sense of independence and individuality and while certain characteristics are shared with existing typologies, others make them distinctive from these typologies therefore evidence would suggest acceptance of the null hypothesis.

**H<sub>a</sub>: Participants did not engage in any activities before or after the event.**

The participants were asked which activities they engaged in while in Cape Town, prior to the event, as well as after the event had ended. The potential answers were grouped into categories of activities usually engaged in by leisure tourists – as well as an 'other' option where respondents could specify an alternative activity that was not on the given list. These questions were multiple response questions and respondents could thus select as many answers as were applicable. Frequency counts were conducted on each of these questions to determine the most popular activities. The activities engaged in before the event, are in table 11.

Activity	Percentage
Visiting Friends & Relatives	71.6%
Sight-seeing	67.7%
Nightclubs	10.5%
Tourist Attractions	42.5%
Entertainment	37.7%
Training for the race	49.2%
None	2%
Other	10.9%

Table 11: Pre-event activities (measured in percentage)

The main activity engaged in by respondents was visiting friends and relatives (71.6%) and since this figure exceeds the amount of respondents who stayed with friends and relatives while in Cape Town it can be said with a fair amount of certainty, that the majority of the sample had either friends or family in Cape Town – potentially more than this percentage. The second most popular activity was sight-seeing (67.7%) which is a relaxing and cost-effective manner in which to familiarise oneself with the city before embarking on the arduous tour. Almost half (49.2%) of the sample admitted to training before the event – the remaining group either arrived too soon before the event to train or they occupied their time with other activities and had a less competitive and serious attitude towards the event.

A cross-tabulation analysis was then conducted between the importance of cycling in the lives of respondents and the activities in which they engaged before the event, in order to compare whether those who deemed cycling more important were more likely to train (see table 12).

	Very Important	Important	Neither/ Nor	Unimportant	Very Unimportant
VFR	50	137	29	2	6
Sight-seeing	54	131	21	1	5
Nightclubs	8	20	3	1	1
Tourist Attractions	34	84	8	1	6
Entertainment	30	68	18	1	1
Training	43	94	11	1	5
None	1	2	2	0	1
Other	9	18	4	1	2

Table 12: Cross-tabulation between the importance of cycling and pre-event activities

The assumption here would have been that respondents to whom cycling was important or very important would have rated training highly on their list of pre-event activities. Training was rated as the third most popular pre-event activity by those to whom cycling was very important and important as well as those who rated it as very unimportant (this was a small sample and is therefore slightly skewed). The activities which were rated above training however, remained Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) and sight-seeing.

Tourist attractions and entertainment (movies, theatre etc.) also rated quite highly on the list of pre-event activities scoring 49.2% and 37.7% respectively. For 10.5%, visiting nightclubs was also a key pre-event activity. The 2% of respondents that selected 'other' activities specified shopping and business in this category.

The activity options given to respondents after the event were the same to allow for comparison before and after the event. The only option which changed was 'training' which then became redundant as the event had passed at that stage and was replaced by "attending the official after-party" (refer to table 13).

Activity	Percentage
Visiting Friends & Relatives	61.3%
Sight-seeing	49.5%
Nightclubs	10.9%
Tourist Attractions	36.7%
Entertainment	41.9%
Attending the official after-party	16.6%
None, went straight home	11.5%
Other	8%

Table 13: Post-event activities [measured in percentage]

After the event, activity was far more spread out across the various activities engaged in. VFR continues to be the most popular activity engaged in although it decreased by 10% after the event to 61.3%. Sight-seeing also decreased dramatically from 67% to 49% whereas Entertainment increased marginally from approximately 37% to 41%. Visits to tourist attractions decreased slightly from before the event to 36.7% thereafter. The number of visits to nightclubs remained more or less constant at 10% and it is likely that this consisted of the same 10% of the sample as the group who frequented nightclubs before the event. Only 16.6% of the respondents attended the event after-party and 11.5% went home immediately after the event had concluded.

Green & Chalip (1998) found that participating in events related to the researched tournament allowed participants to share in their identity as members of the sporting subculture, on a deeper level. However, the sport being played at the tournament was a team sport. The difference when considering an individual sport is apparent in the small number of participants in the CAPPCT who attended the event after-party. Eight percent of the sample indicated that they participated in 'other' activities after the event, namely shopping and business.

Generally, respondents are a great deal more relaxed after the event and utilise the time after the event to engage in leisure activities whereas the period before the event is used to focus solely on the event and its successful completion. The null hypothesis is thus rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

## **5. Sporting Interests of participants into the 2004 CAPPCT**

**H<sub>0</sub>: Participants in the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour did not take part in sports other than cycling during the year.**

The purpose of including this objective in the parameters of the research is to add to the profile of the cyclists that is being created. Respondents were given a list of sports and were asked to select those which they participated in regularly and at a club or similarly competitive level. Firstly, a frequency count was conducted that determined which of these sports were most popular among respondents, the results of which appear in table 14.

Sport	Frequency	Percentage
Running	118	37.7%
Swimming	68	21.7%
Soccer	23	7.3%
Cricket	12	3.8%
Rugby	9	2.8%
Tri-Athlons	50	15.9%
None	68	21.7%
Other	126	40.2%

Table 14: Frequencies of participants' sporting activities

From the results, 37.7% of respondents' part-take in running, 21.7% of the sample swims regularly and the same percentage does not participate in any other sport besides cycling. Just less than 16% of respondents also participate in tri-athlons regularly. Interestingly, all of the above-mentioned sports are activities that are geared towards individuals i.e. one can participate in these activities independently and still enjoy a degree of interaction with others, without depending on them as one would on one's team-mates, for example. This is further substantiated by the low percentages of participation in the team sports listed above namely, 7.3% play soccer, 3.8% play cricket and a mere 2.8% play rugby.

Forty percent of respondents selected the 'Other' category. On further examination of the sports listed by participants, in this category, the number of sports engaged in expanded as 36 different types of sports were listed. These sports and the frequency, with which they occurred in this list, are illustrated in figure 11. This finding further explains the low percentage of respondents who entered as members of a team compared to the significantly higher individual entries.

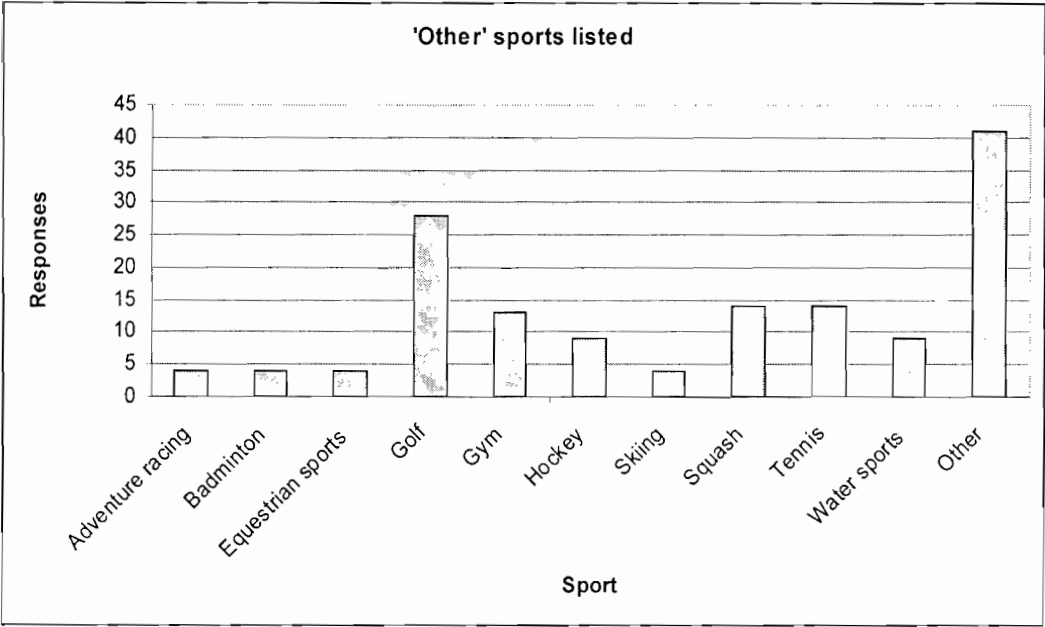


Figure 11: Sports listed in 'other' category

The sports that appeared most frequently on this list are 'Golf', 'Squash', 'Tennis', 'Gym', 'Hockey' and 'Water Sports'. From those sports listed in figure 11, hockey is the only real team sport, once again reinforcing the above finding that the cyclists sampled are more inclined to participate in individualist sports where they do not need to be a member of a team, however they can still enjoy a degree of interaction with others, although the extent of interaction engaged in is for them to decide.

A Correspondence Analysis was then conducted to determine the relationship between the sports engaged in by respondents and the importance of cycling to those people. A Chi-squared test was conducted and a Chi-square value of 25.6785 was obtained which was not significant at the 5% level but only at the 50% level. Therefore the analysis was terminated. Following this, a Factor Analysis was conducted – the aim of a factor analysis is to identify any underlying patterns or motivational forces that may exist within a data set. It was decided that more concrete evidence was necessary to prove that cyclists did indeed prefer individualist sports. Due to the large number of sports listed in the 'other' category, a revised data set was compiled that would incorporate the most popular sport(s) listed as 'other'. The Factor Analysis was then conducted on this data set.

The revised data set included the sport golf, which was listed numerous times as a sport which is also engaged in by respondents but did not appear on the pre-defined list. Therefore, the final list of variables numbered 9; as such a maximum of 9 significant factors could have been extracted. Before rotation, 4 significant factors were extracted from the data set. This number remained the same after rotation and yielded the following eigenvalues.

Factor	Eigenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative Percentage
1	1.8159	20.1774	1.8159	20.1774
2	1.4615	16.2393	3.2775	36.4167
3	1.1661	12.9569	4.4436	49.3736
4	1.0574	11.7486	5.5010	61.1222

Table 15: Eigenvalues extracted from Varimax normalized rotation of factors

The four significant factors in combination, therefore explained 61% of total variation within the data set, which is a relatively good result. The factor loadings were then calculated and the results are shown in table 16.

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Running	0.7050	0.0507	-0.1401	-0.1885
Swimming	0.5476	-0.0194	0.1180	0.1186
Soccer	-0.0183	-0.0433	-0.0001	-0.9020
Cricket	0.0144	0.1277	0.7876	0.0528
Rugby	0.0406	-0.1809	0.7052	-0.0692
Tri-Athlons	0.6927	-0.0201	-0.0459	0.2646
Golf	-0.0011	0.8434	0.0591	-0.0959
None	-0.7011	-0.0613	-0.1709	0.3574
Other	0.0369	0.8147	-0.1143	0.1386
Expl. Var	1.7719	1.4331	1.1991	1.0970

Table 16: Rotated Factor Loadings

The factor loadings table shows the correlations (loadings) between variables and factors. The thumb rule of factor analysis is that the variables with loadings of 0.7 or more are regarded as significant. Therefore, factor 1 explains the variables, 'Running' and 'None' – the 'Tri-Athlons' variable can also be included here as its loading is 0.6927 which only narrowly misses the 0.7 mark. The variables 'Golf' and 'Other' load highly on factor 2 with loadings of 0.8434 and 0.8147 respectively. Factor 3 explains 'Cricket' and 'Rugby' and there is a very strong correlation between factor 4 and 'Soccer'.



The only variable which is unexplained is that of swimming although this variable is somewhat associated to factor 1 with a correlation of 0.5476. Therefore, the first two factors explain the individualistic sports (Running, Tri-Athlons, Swimming and Golf) as well as the more elusive categories of 'none' and 'other'. As mentioned previously though, the types of sports listed in the other category are also more individual as opposed to team sports. Factors 3 and 4 however, explain the team sports of Soccer, Cricket and Rugby. The factors can thus be named as follows. Factors 1 and 2 can be grouped and named *Individualist Sports* and Factors 3 and 4 can be named *Team Sports*.

## 6. Economic Factors

**H<sub>0</sub>: Participants did not spend money on food, public transport, accommodation, cycling equipment or Expo products and activities.**

The 2003 Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour is reported to have resulted in approximately R 310 million worth of income for the South African and Western Cape economy (Appendix D). This research report was not intended to be an economic study as this would have required absolute amounts to be calculated, however it encompasses the economic aspect of the event as well and seeks to determine which products and services yielded the most expenditure.

The activities against which spending was measured included food, public transport, accommodation, the Lifestyle Expo, cycling equipment, tourist attractions and entertainment (defined as movies, the theatre, shows, dining, nightclubs). Respondents were given predefined spending brackets from which to select their answers i.e. the estimated amount spent on each of the above. These spending brackets were as follows:

- R 0
- < R 100
- R 101 – R 300
- R 301 – R 500
- R 501 – R 700
- R 700 – R 1000
- > R 1000

Figure 12 illustrates the spending patterns of respondents in each of the above-mentioned categories.

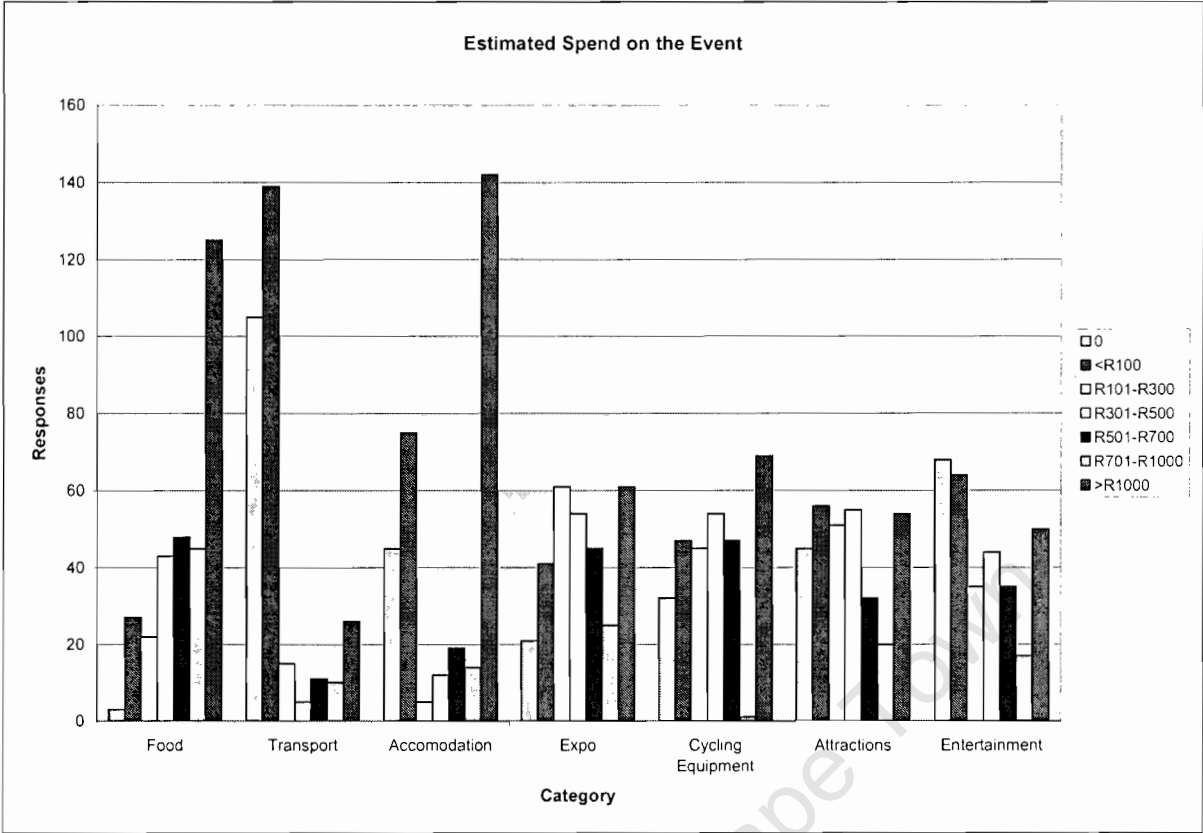


Figure 12: Estimated expenditure per category

A correspondence analysis was further conducted on the same data. This analysis yielded a Chi-square value of 649.83 which was significant at the 5% level. The first two dimensions extracted explained approximately 90% of the variation (dimension 1 explained 61.6% and dimension 2 explained 29.8%) indicating that the model was a good one as almost all the variation was explained in the first two dimensions. The associations that were drawn from analysis are illustrated in the following diagram.

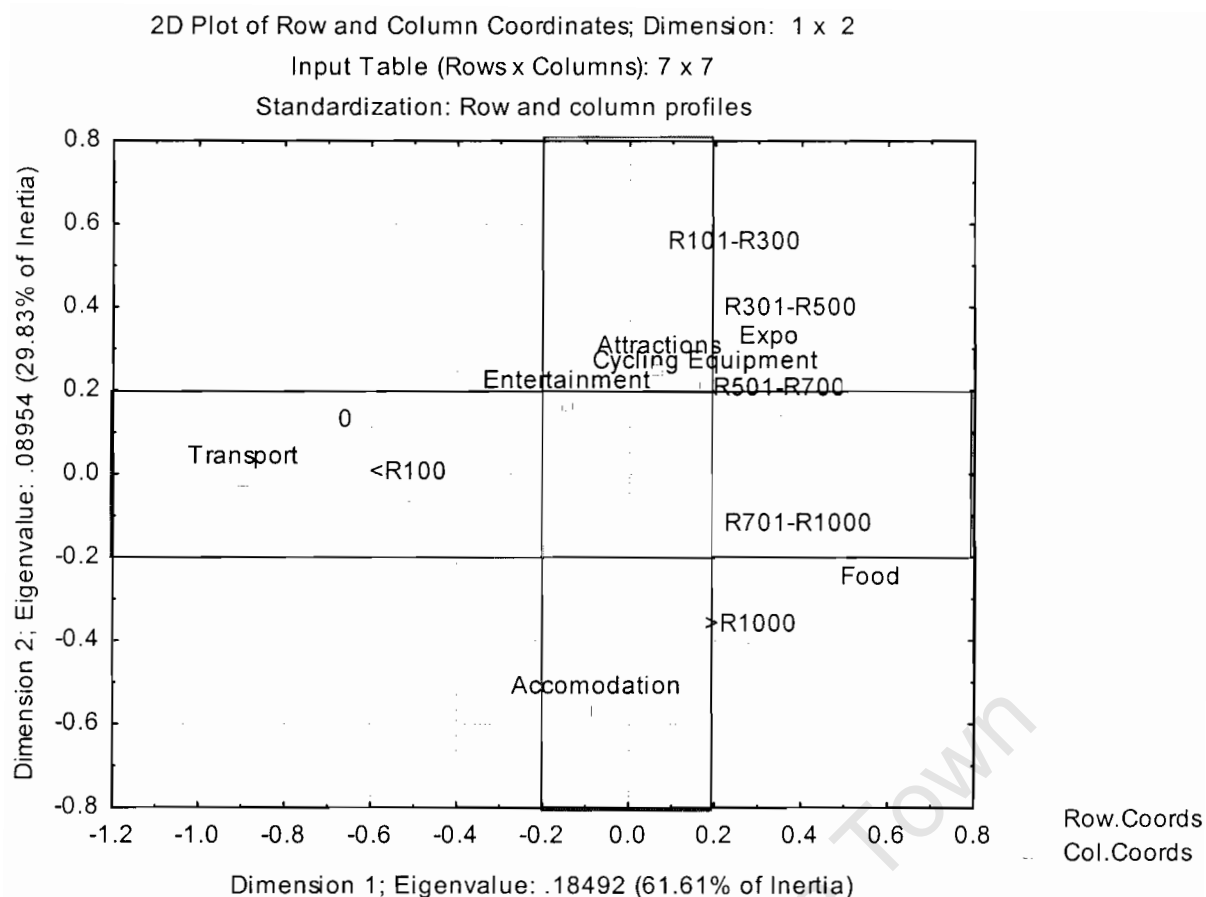


Figure 13: Correspondence Map between expenditure brackets and spending categories

On dimension 1 the variable 'Food' had a weak association with '> R 1000' and was moderately associated with the 'R 701 – R 1000' expenditure bracket. Because food is necessary for one's sustenance it is expected that this will be one of the variables on which the most money is spent. There is a very strong association between 'Expo', 'Equipment' and the 'R 301 – R 500' spending bracket. This correlates with the economic impact study conducted on the CAPPCT of 2003, which found that most of the expenditure related to the event was spent on accommodation and meals (Appendix D). It also correlates with the findings in the literature review which stated that high levels of expenditure on accommodation and peaking within this industry during an event are key indicators of a hallmark event.

A somewhat weaker association exists between these variables and the 'R 101 – R 300' spending bracket. The association between these two variables and the 'R 501 –

R 700' narrowly escapes significance as the latter co-ordinate falls just inside the +0.2 barrier on dimensions 1 and 2, thus making it invalid. Furthermore, dimension 1 also displays a weak association between 'Public Transport' and both the R 0 and < R 100 brackets. This too can be inferred as a result of the unreliable and unsafe reputation of the public transport services that are available in Cape Town.

Dimension 2 illustrates a fairly strong association between 'Food' and >R 1000 and a somewhat weaker association between 'Accommodation' and >R 1000. It also displays a very strong association between 'Attractions', 'Cycling Equipment' and R 501 – R 700 even though this lies perilously close to the +0.2 barrier line on dimension 2. This expenditure bracket is also closely associated with the 'Expo' variable, although this variable is more strongly associated with the R 301 – R 500 bracket. 'Attractions', 'Cycling Equipment' and 'Expo' also have a weak association with the R 101 – R 300 expenditure bracket.

Therefore the variables that incur the most foreign spending are 'Accommodation' and 'Food' each necessary for nutrition and shelter respectively. The variable which incurs the least spending is the 'Public transport' variable. This enables the null hypothesis to be rejected.

## 7. Socio-Cultural Factors

**H<sub>0</sub>: The destination is the primary attraction for participants and not the actual event.**

As a premier holiday destination, Cape Town attracts thousands of tourists each year, who wish to experience its magnificence. Similarly, the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour attracts thousands of participants as an established and popular cycling event. The question arises as to which of the two are more influential in swaying the sports tourists' decision, therefore the assumption is that the event and the destination compete with each other in this regard.

When asked whether or not they were more likely to participate in events if they were held outside of their hometown, 56.2% of respondents said that this was 'Likely' and 24.3% said this was 'Highly likely'. These two groups represented the opinions of approximately 80% of respondents, 10% were indifferent between the destination and

the event and a further 9% said they were either 'Unlikely' or 'Highly unlikely' to participate in an event held outside of their hometown. Green & Chalip (1998 : 276) found that consumption of sport by tourists has increased greatly (by 1300% from 1967 to 1989) due to mega events such as the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup. Individuals' interest in sport has also increased significantly due to the increased desire for a healthy lifestyle.

In order to gain more specific insight into the relationship between this event and the destination, respondents were asked whether they would have participated in the event had it not been held in Cape Town as well as whether or not they would have visited Cape Town at that time, had it not been for the event. Twenty-one percent answered that they definitely would have entered even if it had not been held in Cape Town implying that for this group the event was the over-riding decider.

Thirty-one percent of respondents stated that the destination was the deciding factor as they indicated that they would not have entered had the event been held elsewhere. Forty-seven percent of respondents were undecided on this matter and chose 'maybe' as their answers. The great majority of respondents (64.8%) said that they would not have visited Cape Town at that time, had it not been to participate in the Cycle Tour. For approximately 18% of respondents participation was incidental as they would have been on holiday in Cape Town at the time of the event. It must however be noted that this specific question pertains to the time period of March 2004 when the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour was held.

Respondents were also asked whether or not they participated in other similar sporting events to which 35.8% answered 'Yes', 41.2% answered 'No' and 22.4% answered 'Sometimes'. The null hypothesis is thus rejected.

**H<sub>a</sub>: The perceptions of the participants of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour of Cape Town as the destination of the event are unfavourable.**

The Sports Tourism industry is fairly dependent on the destination where the event is held. As stated in the literature review, hosting hallmark events is a privilege to many cities and is often the tool that is used by cities to position themselves as an international destination (Smith & Jenner, 1998 : 75). In order to gain a more accurate

picture of the role that Cape Town plays in the success of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour, respondents were asked to state their levels of agreement with several socio-cultural statements made about the city.

Previously, it was found that almost a third of respondents would not have entered the event had it not been for the destination of Cape Town and 18% of respondents would have been in Cape Town as tourists at the time of the event, regardless of whether or not it had been held at that time. It had been expected that first-time participants would have different views of the city compared to returning participants however; this assumption could not be maintained due to the fact that first-time participants were not necessarily first-time visitors to the city. Nevertheless, a Correspondence Analysis was conducted between respondents' levels of agreement and certain statements describing Cape Town.

A chi-squared test of significance was conducted and yielded a chi-squared value of 2101.21 which was significant at the 5% level. Therefore it can be inferred that a significant statistical relationship exists between these two categories. Four dimensions were extracted from the data which explained 95.75% of the total variation. The first two dimensions alone explain 86% of the total variation - dimension 1 explains 71.3% and the dimension 2 explains approximately 24.5% of the variation. This model is thus a very good one with the first two dimensions explaining all but 5% of the variation thus increasing the accuracy of the relationships extracted.

The statements that appeared in the final survey (see Appendix B) were both positive and negative statements about the city therefore the keywords that appear on the Correspondence Map (figure 14) represent the aspect of the city that is being agreed with.

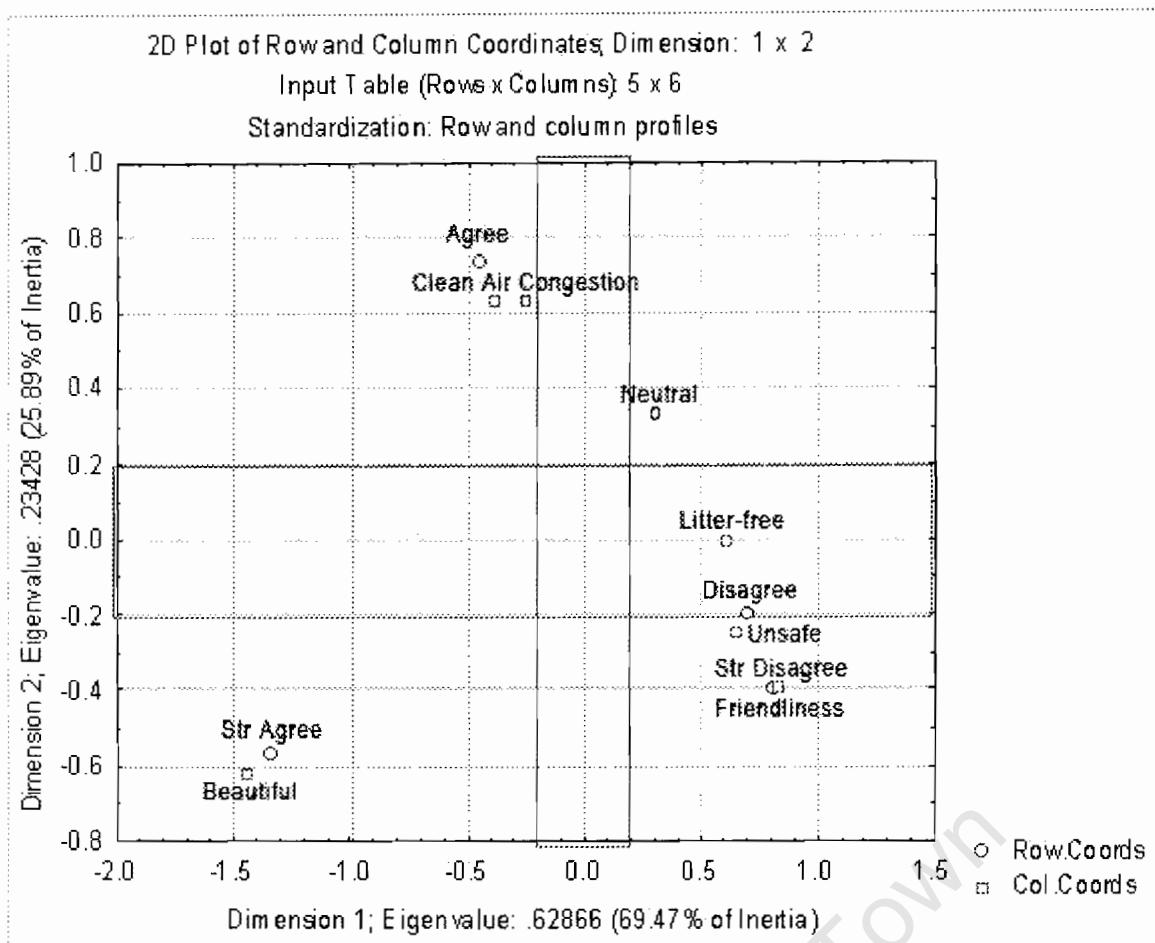


Figure 14: Correspondence Map between Level of Agreement and Statements about Cape Town

Figure 14 illustrates the statistical relationship explained by the above-mentioned dimensions. Dimension 1 highlights a very strong statistical relationship between 'Friendliness' and 'Strongly Agree'. A strong relationship also exists between 'Unsafe' and 'Disagree' as well as between 'Litter-free' and 'Disagree'. 'Litter-free' is also fairly weakly associated with 'Neutral'. Dimension 1 also highlights a strong association between 'Strongly Agree' and 'Beautiful' as well as between 'Strongly Agree' and 'Good Crowds'. A strong association also exists between 'Clean Air' and 'Agree' and a slightly weaker but still strong association exists between 'Congestion' and 'Agree'.

Overall, there was general agreement with the favourable characteristics of Cape Town especially the friendliness of the locals, the encouraging and enthusiastic spectators, the beauty of the city and the unpolluted environment. The negative factor that was agreed with was the congestion experienced by cyclists however, in

an event consisting of some 38 000 participants, this must be expected. Ironically, the negative statement of Cape Town being unsafe was disagreed with indicating a very positive perception of the city despite news reports about the violent crimes that occur in the city. It is however possible, particularly since these are international tourists that respondents regarded this question about their safety on a more global level and considered it in terms of their safety from terrorist threats. As such, general positive perceptions lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis.

## Summary

In summary, 65% of participants were returning visitors and among them, 50% had participated in the event on more than one occasion previously. Most respondents take part in individual sports with just less than 14% participating in team sports therefore they prefer individual sports where they can interact with others, but do not need to co-operate with them. This finding was supported by a Factor Analysis, which found that two distinct categories could be extracted from the sample data, namely that participants could be grouped into those who participate in individualised sports and those who participate in team sports. When asked to rate their most important reasons for entry, respondents chose challenge, fun, and fitness. When considering the event in its entirety, it was found that cycling is of greater importance to participants than the social interaction experienced during the event.

Furthermore, the greatest event-related expenditure was experienced in the categories of food and accommodation and the least expenditure was in the category of public transport. When respondents' attitudes' towards the event versus the destination were measured, the event won out as the more important decider for most respondents. Respondents were found to have favourable opinions and attitudes towards Cape Town as a destination.



## Sport Tourist Typology Model

Tourist typologies are derived from the study of tourists' behaviour. To date most typologies that exist are based on the behaviour of leisure tourists as opposed to those who fall into the Special Interest Tourism markets. The characteristics that are utilised as defining characteristics centre on the methods used to make travel arrangements; leisure activities engaged in by tourists and the general propensity to explore the "unbeaten track". The earliest typology referenced is evidence thereof and was devised by Gray (1970) who distinguished tourists into two groups, sunlust and wanderlust tourists.

The former group is motivated by the three S's, namely sun, sand and sea, while the latter group seeks the cultural experience. Cohen (1972) elaborated further when he created four typologies for leisure tourists grouping them into mass tourists, individualised mass tourists, explorers and drifters. Mass tourists are those who travel in an 'environmental bubble', do not seek to venture into the unknown but stick to pre-planned itineraries and have limited interaction with the local community. They are likely to make their travel arrangements through a travel agent. At the other end of the continuum, drifters immerse themselves in the local community and culture and steer clear of the formalised tourism industry. They are independent in all aspects of their lives. Individualised mass tourists and explorers are effectively hybrids of these two extremes (George, 2001: 141-142).

Similar determinants were used to devise the typology model. The categorisation of sports tourists into the two categories of Sports Tourism and Tourism Sports, favoured by Turco, Riley and Swart (2002: 8), also had to be taken into account. In the context of the study the proposed typology refers to those who engage in Sports Tourism, those who travel to destinations for the purpose of participating in an event. Participation in the CAPPCT requires registration and qualification prior to the event. Therefore participation is pre-meditated and can be categorised as Sports Tourism. The typology model therefore pertains to true sports tourism and not tourists who engage in leisure sports incidentally while on holiday (Tourism Sports).

Furthermore, when examining the activities engaged in and the accommodation used, most respondents do not engage in mass tourist activities but prefer visiting friends and relatives and other more flexible activities. There is also a strong tendency to make travel arrangements online implying that characteristics such as independence and behaviour adverse to that of mass tourists are present.

The typology is also modelled according to the key findings that emerged from the research. These include the finding that social interaction was not a primary reason for participation but rated rather low on the list of respondents' motivations – this despite the fact that the event is largely recreational in its nature. A second finding was that motivations were more intrinsic than extrinsic for most respondents. The majority of respondents did not engage in team sports and all other sports that they engaged in were solitary sports.

The proposed typology exists along a continuum with end points of "Solitary" and "Team". Four categories of sports tourists have been devised along this continuum. The categories have been named: Loners, Sociable Loners, Balanced players and Team Players. The model is illustrated on the following diagram.

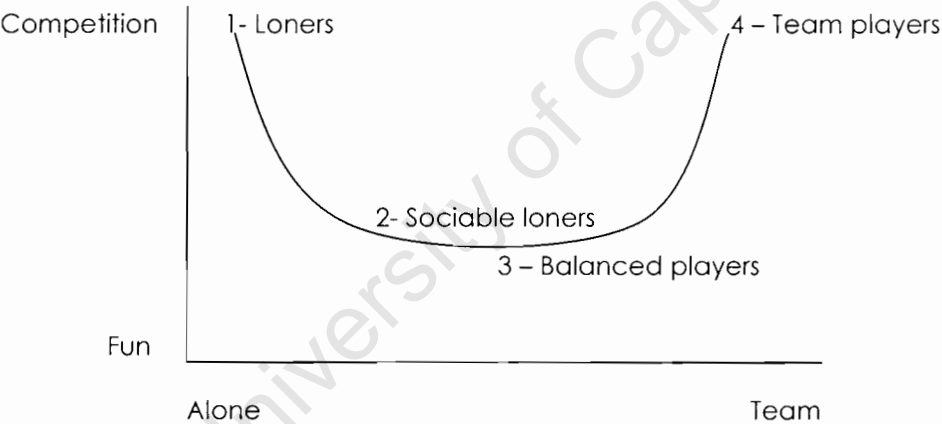


Figure 15: Diagramatic representation of the typology of motivations of sports tourists

1) Loners

This category consists of tourists who travel to participate in sporting events geared towards individuals for example, running, golf and cycling. These individuals are

likely to be more competitive and their motives for participation will be of a more intrinsic nature and will be geared towards fulfilling higher level needs of achievement, status and success. These individuals will be members of the subculture of the sport but are unlikely to be active participants of that subculture. They are also more likely to be professional athletes and sportsmen as opposed to recreational athletes.

2) Sociable Loners

These are individuals who engage in solitary sports while surrounded by other similar individuals, with whom they can interact on a social level, if they choose to do so. They are still competitive in nature but to a lesser degree and compete with themselves for the sake of improving their own performance, rather than competing with others. Their motives include leisure, fitness and to some extent, social belonging.

3) Balanced Players

Balanced players engage in solitary sports that have low levels of competition for the purpose of leisure, fun, fitness and social belonging. They seek to identify with the sporting subculture and this is in fact how they satisfy their intrinsic needs. They engage in team sports as recreational activities as well as solitary activities and therefore engage in sport for the sheer enjoyment thereof.

4) Team Players

These sport tourists engage in team sports only. They have a strong desire for belonging to a subculture, to experience group identity and social acceptance. They are generally competitive in nature and are driven by their extrinsic needs. They are likely to be professional sports players or those engaged in a highly competitive sports league.

Figure 15 maps the typology along a concave graph to illustrate how these four groups relate to each other. Loners and team players therefore have similar attitudes towards the sport that they engage in however each group is motivated by opposite characteristics, for example loners are driven by intrinsic motivations as opposed to team players who are extrinsically motivated.

## Conclusions

### 1. Main Conclusions

Early in the research process it became apparent that there is a great lack of research in the field of Sports tourism in South Africa. This applies to Sports Tourism at all levels of professionalism and to international and domestic sports tourism markets as well as events ranging in size from community events to hallmark events.

Regarding the event itself, most respondents come to hear about it through word-of-mouth from friends and family. Sixty-five percent of respondents have participated in the event previously and very little advertising was required to inform them of the event. In addition, many participants subscribe to or read cycling magazines and e-newsletters on a regular basis.

Participants have an individualistic nature and prefer solitary sports as opposed to team sports. The nature of participants is far more inward-looking and they are driven by their intrinsic needs and higher order needs of status and self-actualisation as opposed to their needs for social acceptance. The most highly rated reasons for participation in the event are "challenge", "fitness" and "fun"; the high rating of challenge shows the importance of the self-actualisation need that is being fulfilled. Participants in this event are very independent and self-reliant and tend to make travel arrangements independently as opposed to relying on a travel agent or tour operator. It was expected that first-time participants would have different motivations and perceptions compared to repeat participants however this was not the case. There are no statistically significant differences between first-time participants and repeat participants.

Participants take part in the event for the purpose of cycling and to fulfil the role that it plays in their lives as opposed to participating for the purpose of social interaction with other cyclists. Social interaction does not rate highly for most cyclists as one of the reasons for participation.

E-mail is a very successful means of conducting research resulting in a response of 25% and generating immediate, higher-quality responses (complete responses). This method of research was also cheaper and more convenient than postal surveys.

The most popular activities engaged in before the event, are visiting friends and relatives, sight-seeing and training for the race. The most popular post-event activities are similar except that training no longer occurs and participants who remain in Cape Town spend more time sight-seeing. The majority of the participants' expenditure is spent on accommodation and food, which are the two most necessary items and which effectively fulfil their lower order needs. The least expenditure is on public transport within Cape Town.

The perceptions and attitudes of participants towards Cape Town are very positive, with Cape Town being rated as a beautiful, unpolluted, litter-free and safe city with hospitable residents. Despite this, respondents rated the event as having more influence on the ultimate decision to participate than the host destination.

## **2. Marketing Implications**

Several complications arise with this target market because they are spread throughout the world, predominantly in first-world countries. This implies that the cost of using traditional above-the-line media to advertise this event increases enormously. In addition, research results have shown that word-of-mouth is by far the most influential and successful manner of spreading news about the Cycle Tour, despite it being completely out of the control of the event organisers. Therefore, instead of the traditional above-the-line media, organizers should consider the option of appointing race ambassadors whose task it will be to spread news of the event to potential participants in their countries. These ambassadors should be selected based on the number of times that they've participated and their enthusiasm for the event.

A prominent finding was the fact that respondents displayed strong individualist characteristics. This should be considered when designing marketing campaigns and travel packages. Furthermore, participants are increasingly booking online, therefore event organisers should consider advertising on prominent travel booking engines or airline websites. In addition, the tone of communication strategies should be geared

towards the individual as opposed to addressing cyclists as a single entity. In keeping with the communication strategy, the research also found that participants seek to fulfil the higher level needs of self-actualization and esteem rather than the lower level needs of fitness and social acceptance. Again, the tone of all communication should be directed towards this particular need.

Participants in this event have overwhelmingly favourable perceptions of Cape Town as a destination. The tourism authorities should attempt to extend these perceptions of the city to the country at large by possibly incorporating the rest of South Africa into the activities that occur in the run-up to the event. An example of this could be extending the Giro del Capo to other provinces of South Africa, essentially, aiming to make the cycle tour a more national event and less exclusive to the Western Cape.

### **3. Recommendations for Additional Research**

As mentioned above, a great deal of research into the field of Sports Tourism in South Africa is necessary. Firstly, the findings stated in this research study are specific to one event. Due to the lack of existing research on sporting events in South Africa, it cannot be said with any amount of certainty that these findings are applicable throughout. Therefore, research into similar sporting events is necessary e.g. the Comrades Marathon and the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon, which would then allow room for comparison between these findings and those that would be derived from those studies.

Similarly, research is necessary to determine the role played by the host destination in the decision-making process of the event participants. This research would be of particular interest in a country like South Africa, because it possesses unique qualities as a result of its unique history, which many foreigners find very appealing. The country also hosts a variety of events ranging from purely leisure sporting events to highly professional sporting events and ranging in scale from community based events to hallmark events. This research would be very valuable as South Africa gears up to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

A prominent finding in this research was that Cape Town is perceived exceptionally well amongst participants of this event. Research measuring the perceptions of similar

events held at other destinations within the country, is necessary in order to compare and apply the findings to the sports tourism industry in South Africa. In this manner it will be ascertained whether the above-mentioned recommendation of extending the event to include the rest of the country, can be successfully implemented or not.

In a similar vein, other sports need to be researched. Cycling in essence is an individual sport where participants rely on their own skills and abilities to obtain the desired results. However, sports such as soccer, rugby and cricket (which are hugely popular in South Africa), also require skill and talent in addition to the ability to co-operate with others. Sports tourists who participate in events of the former nature are more abundant than sports tourists who partake in the latter events. In the latter events, it is the spectator sports tourist who is more abundant. Consequently, there are great differences between team and individual sports and the spectators of each. Hence, research into these differences in terms of participant profiles, spectator involvement, and socio-cultural and economic impacts, is required.

This study did not include domestic sports tourists however; they constituted 58% of all event participants. Extensive research into the differences (if any) between domestic sports tourists and international sports tourists is needed, particularly since most tourism revenue is derived from domestic tourists. A more in-depth look at the different market segmentations that play a role in the staging of the event such as officials, spectators, the media and so forth, who presumably each have different motivators, is required.

Research into the different types of expenditure that are associated with events is required. The multiplier model identifies three types of expenditure namely direct, indirect and induced expenditure. Greater research is required to determine what qualifies as direct, indirect and induced expenditure and which sectors are most and least affected by these expenditure types.

Furthermore, additional research is required to determine whether or not any differences exist between South African sports people. Previous research conducted aimed to identify whether the different racial groups were partial to certain sporting codes as opposed to others, however this research is somewhat dated now and new research is needed to identify what changes have taken place in South Africa, since the previous study was conducted.

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Interview 1: Ken Sturgeon (8 September 2003)  
Acting Managing Director  
Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour

Interview 2: Anton Groenewald (12 February 2004)  
Chief Executive Officer  
Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour

Interview 3: Graham Talbot (1 March 2004)  
Technical Director  
33 Degrees Interactive

University of Cape Town

## Appendix A

Dear Cyclist

The Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour is the largest timed cycle event in the world. This year the Cycle Tour returned to Chapman's Peak and as a result of this, reached the maximum number of entries within 65 hours!

We are extremely interested in what inspires you, our international participants, to partake in this highly acclaimed event. What motivates you to travel hundreds, sometimes thousands of kilometers to cycle 108kms?

In order to determine this, we have compiled a questionnaire which we request you to complete. Please click on [www.cycletour.co.za/survey/survey.asp](http://www.cycletour.co.za/survey/survey.asp) and follow the steps to complete the questionnaire. And for your trouble, you will stand a chance of winning one of ten complimentary entries into the 2005 Cycle Tour and cycling jerseys and shorts!

Thank you for your interest.

Regards

The Cycle Tour Team

University of Cape Town

# Appendix B

## EVENT SURVEY

### KNOWLEDGE OF THE EVENT

1. Was this your first time participating in the event?

Yes	(1)	→ if yes, skip to q.3
No	(2)	→ if no, proceed to .2

2. If **no**, how many times have you participated before? (→ skip to question 5)

Once	(1)
Twice	(2)
3 times	(3)
4 times	(4)
5 times	(5)
6 times	(6)
> 6 times	(7)

3. What was the main source of information that raised your awareness of this event?

(Select all those that apply)

Friends/ Family	(1)
Business associates	(2)
Radio	(3)
Television	(4)
Magazine	(5)
Newspaper	(6)

Pedal Power Association	(7)
Through a cycling club	(8)
Tourism promotional Material	(9)
Internet/ E-mail	(10)
Other (please specify)	(11)

4. In question 3 above, if you selected any of the following media please name them.

Newspaper	
Magazine	
Cycling Club	
Tourism material	
Internet site	

5. Which of the following do you read or view regularly, or subscribe to? (Please select all those that apply)

Cycling Magazines	(1)
Cycling websites	(2)
Cycling programmes on television	(3)
Cycling e-mail newsletters	(4)
Other (please specify)	(5)

## SPORTING INTERESTS

6. How regularly do you cycle during the year? *(Please select one answer only)*

Daily	(1)
Weekly	(2)
More than once a week	(3)
Every fortnight	(4)
Monthly	(5)
Only to prepare for the Cycle Tour	(6)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(7)

7. Do you participate in other similar sporting events that are at a similar level of competitiveness during the year (e.g. marathons, tri-athlons)?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
Sometimes	(3)

8. How would you rate yourself as a cyclist? *(Please select one answer only)*

Recreational	(1)
Amateur	(2)
Semi-professional	(3)
Professional	(4)

9. What other sports do you participate in regularly, either as an individual or through club membership? *(Please select all that apply)*

Running	(1)
Swimming	(2)
Soccer	(3)
Cricket	(4)
Rugby	(5)
Tri-athlons	(6)
None	(7)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(8)

## MOTIVATING FACTORS

10. Please choose the top 3 reasons for your entering this event, in order of importance, where 1 is the most important, 2 is second-most important and 3 is least important.

To improve my physical fitness	(1)
To prove to myself and others that I could complete it	(2)
I enjoy the challenge	(3)
To have fun	(4)
To see Cape Town	(5)
I was encouraged to enter by friends	(6)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(7)

11. Did you enter the event,

Individually	(1)
As a member of a team	(2)
Individually, but with a group of friends	(3)

→ if yes, skip to q.13

→ go to question 12

→ go to question 12

12. Would you still have entered the event if your team or group of friends had not?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
Not sure	(3)

13. Using the scale provided please indicate how important cycling is as an aspect of your life. *(Please select one answer only)*

Very Unimportant	Unimportant	Neither/Nor	Important	Very Important
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

14. How likely are you to participate in sporting events, if they are held outside of your hometown?

Highly Unlikely	Unlikely	Neither/Nor	Likely	Highly Likely
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

### TOURISM ACTIVITIES

15. How many nights did you stay in Cape Town while participating in the 2004 Cycle Tour, in total?

16. When you travelled to Cape Town to participate in this event, which of the following did you use to make your travel arrangements? *(Please specify name if applicable)*

		Name
Independently (Internet)	(1)	
Travel agent	(2)	
Tour operator	(3)	
Cycle Club block bookings	(4)	
Telephone	(5)	
Fax	(6)	
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(7)	

17. Which means of transport did you use to travel to Cape Town?

Private Motor Vehicle	(1)
Hired Motor Vehicle	(2)
Airplane	(3)
Train	(4)
Bus	(5)
Boat/ Ship	(6)
Other	(7)

18. Does this method of travel apply to participation in other similar events as well?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
I do not participate in similar events	(3)



**19. During your stay in Cape Town for the event:**

**(a)** What type of accommodation did you use? *(Please select one answer only)*

Stayed with friends/family	(1)
Hotel	(2)
Guesthouse/ B&B	(3)
Holiday apartment	(4)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(5)

**(b)** Which activities did you participate in **prior** to the event? *(Please select all that apply)*

Visiting friends and relatives	(1)
Sight-seeing	(2)
Night clubs	(3)
Visiting specific tourist attractions	(4)
Entertainment	(5)
Training and preparing for the race	(6)
None	(7)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(8)

**(c)** Which activities did you participate in **after** the event?

Visiting friends and relatives	(1)
Sight-seeing	(2)
Night clubs	(3)
Visiting specific tourist attractions	(4)
Entertainment	(5)
Official after-party	(6)
None, went straight home after the event	(7)
Other <i>(please specify)</i>	(8)

**(d)** What did you as an individual spend on average (in Rands) during your stay in Cape Town, on: *(Please select only one option for each variable)*

	< R 100	R101 - R300	R301 - R500	R501 - R700	R701 - R1000	>R1000
Food & beverages	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Transport (public)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Accommodation	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Products and activities sold at the Exhibition	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Cycling Equipment	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Visiting tourist attractions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Entertainment (clubs, theatre etc.)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

**DESTINATION PERCEPTIONS**

20. Would you have entered the event had it not been held in Cape Town?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
Maybe	(3)

21. Would you have visited Cape Town at this time, had it not been for the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
Maybe	(3)

22. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about Cape Town after taking part in the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour. *(Please select only one option for each variable)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
It is a beautiful city.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
The natural environment is filled with litter.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
The air is clean and unpolluted.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
The locals in Cape Town were unfriendly.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Congestion among cyclists was not a problem during the race.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I felt unsafe while I was in Cape Town	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
The crowds along the route were friendly towards participants.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

23. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour itself.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I enjoyed the race.					
The race was <i>not</i> well-organised.					
The atmosphere among the cyclists was great.					
The refreshment stands were poorly demarcated.					
The service at the refreshment stand was good.					

24. Would you consider participating again next year?

Yes	(1)
No	(2)
Maybe	(3)

**DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

25. What is your nationality?

26. Where is your permanent place of residence?

Botswana	(1)
Namibia	(2)
South Africa	(3)
United Kingdom	(4)
United States of America	(5)
Zimbabwe	(6)
Other ( <i>please specify</i> )	(7)

27. Please indicate your gender

Male	(1)
Female	(2)

28. Please indicate the age bracket that you fall into:

18-20	(2)
21-30	(3)
31-40	(4)
41-50	(5)
51-60	(6)
61-70	(7)
Over70	(8)

29. Please select the answer which most closely describes your current occupation.

Professional/ managerial	(1)
Middle Management	(2)
Clerical/ Secretarial	(3)
Self-employed	(4)
Trade/ Manual Worker	(5)
Retired	(6)
Home Executive	(7)
Student	(8)
Unemployed	(9)
Other ( <i>please specify</i> )	(10)

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Your input is of great value to us and is greatly appreciated. We look forward to seeing you next year!

## Appendix C

More Useful Everyday - http://www.microsoft.com/isapi/redir.dll?prd=ie&ver=6&ar=msnhome

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Address http://bd37144edf5d69ddee42080460f3fba2-10950914823.htm\_\_action=http%3a%2f%2fwww%2e33degrees%2ec0%2ea4%2ftray%2fsurvey%2fSurvey%2easp

msn You are visiting a site outside of Hotmail. To return to Hotmail, close this browser window.

**Event Survey**

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.  
Please take note of the instructions in red and once you have completed the survey, click the SUBMIT button.

Name:  (First Name Only)

**KNOWLEDGE OF THE EVENT**

1.  
Was this your first time participating in the event?  
☐ YES (If yes, skip to Q-3)  
☐ NO (If no, proceed to Q-2)

2.  
If no, how many times have you participated before?  
 (If no, skip to Q-3)  
☐ Once  
☐ Twice

Done

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More than six times

3.  
What was the main source of information that raised your awareness of this event? (Select all those that apply)  
☐ Friends / Family  
☐ Business associates  
☐ Radio  
☐ Television  
☐ Magazine  
☒ Newspaper  
☒ Pedal Power Association  
☐ Through a cycling club  
☒ Tourism promotional material  
☐ Internet / E-mail  
☒ Other (A previous participant) (Please specify)

4.  
In question 3 above, if you've selected any of the following media, please name them.  
☐ Newspaper   
☐ Magazine   
☐ Cycling Club

Done

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☐ None, went straight home after the event

☐ Other  (Please Specify)

(d) What did you as an individual spend on average (in Rands) while attending the event, on:

(Please select one option for each variable)

	< R 100	R101 - R300	R301 - R500	R501 - R700	R701 - R1000	> R1000
Food & Beverages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Transport (public)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Accommodation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Products and activities sold at the exhibition	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cycling Equipment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Visiting tourist attractions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entertainment (clubs, theatre, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**DESTINATION PERCEPTIONS**

20. Would you have entered the event had it not been held in Cape Town?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Maybe

☐ None

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☐ 18 - 20

☒ 21 - 30

☐ 31 - 40

☐ 41 - 50

☐ 51 - 60

☐ 61 - 70

☐ Over 70

29. Please select the answer which most closely describes your current occupation:

☒ Professional / Managerial

☐ Middle Management

☐ Clerical / Secretarial

☐ Self-employed

☐ Trade / Manual Worker

☐ Retired

☐ Home Executive

☐ Student

☐ Unemployed

☐ Other  (Please Specify)

Submit

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## Appendix D

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#### CAPE COFFERS SWELL WITH R310-MILLION CYCLE TOUR CASH CONTRIBUTION

Cape Town – “The 2003 Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour might have come and gone but it has left behind a R310-million cash injection into the local economy that should not be sneezed at,” said Event Manager, Alec Lenferna after the release of the 2003 figures of the independent socio economic impact study that was conducted by Nick Green Consulting during the Cycle Tour.

The study was commissioned by the City of Cape Town's Department of Economic Development and Tourism and has become one of the most anticipated studies that is conducted annually by the Mother City.

“Since embarking on the impact studies in 2000,” Lenferna continued, “the City of Cape Town has been able to account for a direct benefit of more than R600-million over the past four years from the Cycle Tour. Judging by the year-on-year increase, this figure could grow to as much as R900-million next year.”

The event is ultimately a charity driven event co-owned by Rotary and Pedal Power Association (PPA) who redistribute the proceeds from the event to various charity and development projects.

“Under the auspices of the Cycle Tour Trust that constitutes members from Rotary and the PPA, the Cycle Tour has embarked on an aggressive international marketing campaign and we are now beginning to see the dividends from this initiative. International travelers stay longer and also bring much needed foreign currency to the Mother City. This year the event attracted 1 141 international cyclists and supporters who spent an average of 10 days in Cape Town compared to an average of only five days for local and over border cyclists,” Lenferna said.

This year the event accounted for an estimated R310-million in revenue generated through accommodation, food/drinks, shopping, tourist attractions, the sale of bicycle spares and equipment as well as bicycle related services.

Commenting on the impact of the Cycle Tour on the Western Cape, Premier Marthinus van Schalkwyk said, “Tourism is perhaps the single most important growth industry in the Western Cape – not only for its economic benefits, which are impressive, but for the contribution it makes to the reputation of the Cape, which is priceless. World Class events like the Cycle Tour reinforce our status as the Cape of Great Events, and continue to draw record numbers of new foreign and local visitors.”

The additional events that form part of Life Cycle Week like the Mountain Bike Challenge, Giro del Capo, Tricycle and Junior Tours and the Celebrity Carbo Loading

dinner enticed cyclist to stay extra nights and accommodation expenses increased with a staggering 78% from 2002, accounting for R98.3-million of the total spend. This is 216% increase from 2000 when accommodation only accounted for R31.1-million of the total expenditure in the Western Cape.

Once in town, visitors flocked to restaurants and eateries where more than R50.3-million was spent on main meals.

Even though there was a significant increase in the amount of international participants and supporters, tourist attractions and other entertainment venues suffered a 23% decrease in the funds generated from the Cycle Tour. In 2002 these attractions could coax cyclists and supporters into spending R15.2-million and R13.1-million respectively, while 2003 saw them only willing to part with R21.9-million.

The influx of cycling fanatics also increased the feet through the doors of bicycle shops in the Western Cape. Closely rivaling accommodation as the area that accounted for the largest growth this year, the purchase of bicycle parts and related services added a further R16.5-million to the funds. This is an increase of 77% over 2002 figures.

The Premier added, "Participants and spectators who buy souvenirs, use local transport and accommodation, and who visit the many other attractions of the Cape, bring the benefits of the Cycle Tour to a much wider community than just the formal hospitality industry. This is the vision of our Provincial Government – to expand the benefits of tourism to all of the people of the Western Cape."

	VALUES IN R's			
	2000	2001	2002	2003
Accommodation	31,182,897	16,513,621	55,186,441	98,300,000
Main meals	13,274,467	13,562,733	38,824,320	50,300,000
Convenience/general shopping	6,541,290	11,330,652	18,683,111	28,900,000
Visitor attractions/facilities	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	15,208,334	9,300,000
Other souvenirs	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	13,751,315	5,400,000
Other leisure/entertainment	3,021,167	5,287,007	13,152,435	12,600,000
Transport in Cape Town	4,187,609	1,191,705	10,123,342	16,600,000
Bicycle spares and maintenance (outside expo)	4,675,818	12,601,422	9,391,612	16,500,000
Bicycle spares and maintenance (at expo)	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	12,200,000
Snacks between meals	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	8,056,732	9,100,000
Alcoholic drinks	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	9,318,104	Not accounted for during study
Event-related merchandise and expenses	Not accounted for during study	Not accounted for during study	7,363,452	1,600,000
Other	5,399,371	5,599,120		
<b>TOTAL expenditure</b>	<b>R62,883,248.00</b>	<b>R66,086,260.00</b>	<b>R199,059,198.00</b>	<b>R260,800,000.00</b>

\*An additional R50-million was contributed by sponsors and related companies to represent at total of R310-million.

ENDS

Released on behalf of the Cape Argus Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour by Next Generation Communication

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